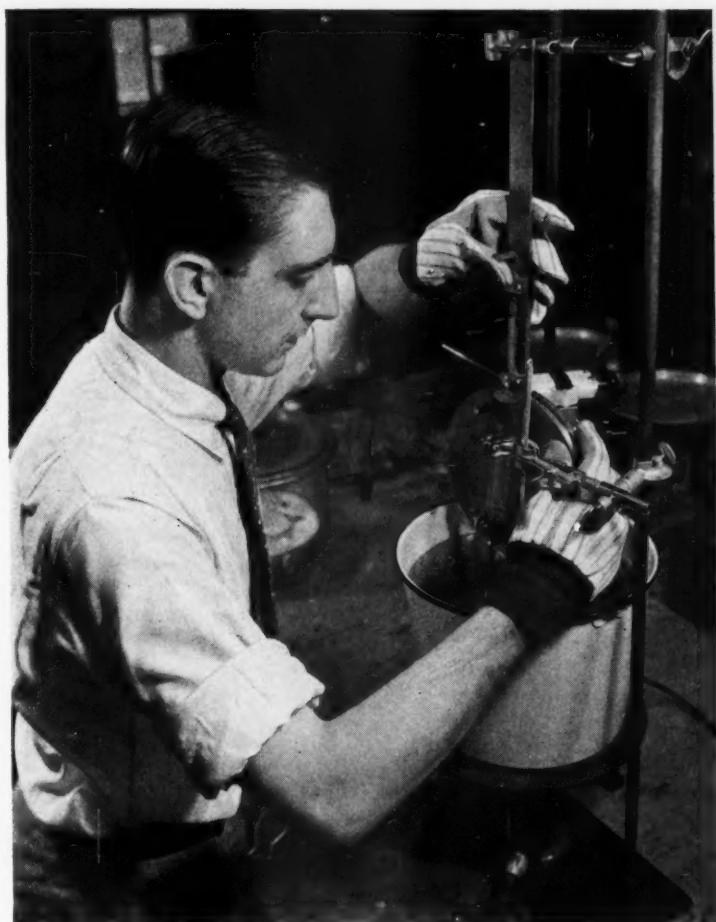


# BELL LABORATORIES RECORD



*Measuring the viscosity of shellac to predict its plastic flow  
when used as a solid insulating material*

DECEMBER, 1936

VOLUME FIFTEEN—NUMBER FOUR



## Synthesizing Speech

By HOMER DUDLEY  
*Wire Transmission Research*

*A demonstration by the author of a speech-synthesizing system accompanied Dr. F. B. Jewett's address at a session of the Harvard Tercentenary Conference on Arts and Sciences, Sanders Hall, Cambridge, September 11, 1936.*

THE synthesizing of speech, demonstrated at Harvard University, involved an instantaneous analysis of speech and then, upon the basis of that information, a synthesis which reconstructed the speech. It was a case of doing elec-

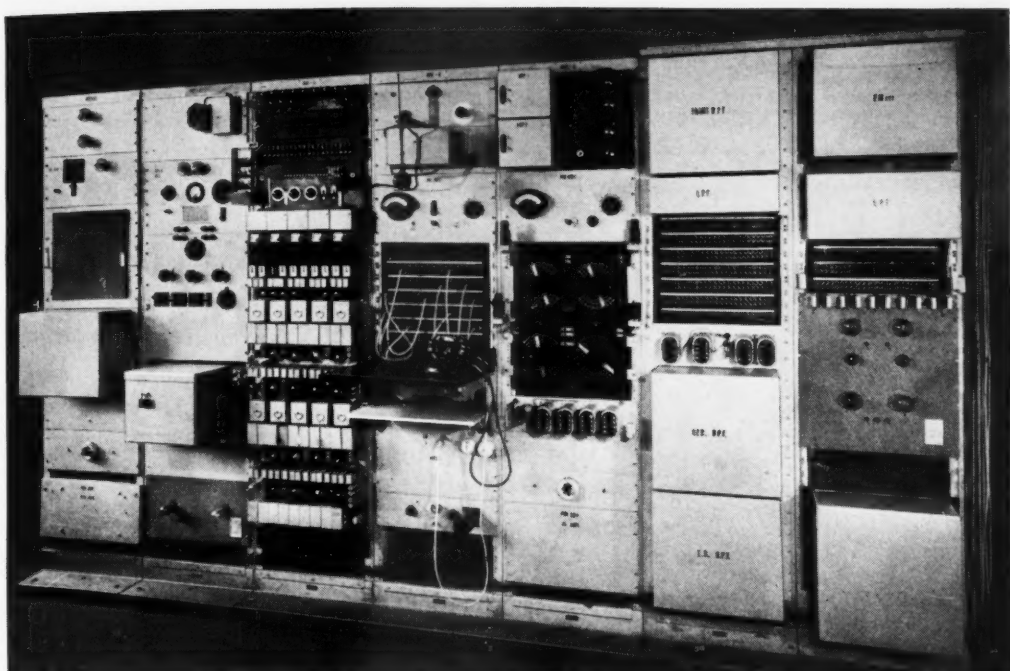
trically what one does in mimicking when he listens to speech sounds with his ear and immediately reproduces them with his own vocal system. In this process three operations may be distinguished: first, the aural perception and analysis of the sound; second,

the passage of neural impulses for the control of the vocal organs, and third, the reproduction of the sound. In the system which was demonstrated these operations were electrical or electro-acoustical.

These operations are to be distinguished from those of ordinary telephony. In telephony there is no analysis of the sound nor is there any synthesis of it. Instead a listening device, the telephone transmitter, picks up the speech sounds and translates them into current variations; a complex alternating current, with components corresponding to those of the sound wave, is then transmitted to the other terminal; and there a reproducing, or talking, device in the form of a telephone receiver reproduces the speech. In ordinary telephony we move a sound wave electrically from one point to another by direct transmission but in the syn-



Fig. 1—C. W. Vadersen speaking into the microphone of the speech-synthesizing apparatus



*Fig. 2—Laboratory arrangement of the speech-synthesis system*

thesizing process, only the specifications for reconstructing the sound wave are directly transmitted.

Synthesizing speech is another step in our studies of speech. Speech is the subject of continuous investigation because it is the basic material which telephony handles. To be able to build an electro-mechanical system for producing speech artificially is a step towards a fuller understanding of the physiological mechanism and of its acoustic output.

Such an artificial system is not easy to build; and the present system is not perfect although it will produce easily intelligible speech with the usual variations of pitch and loudness. It required first, the construction of an instantaneous analyzing device. In most of the other investigations of speech characteristics the analysis has been for the purpose of obtaining statistical information. Sounds have been analyzed in terms of energy

levels and of frequency components as a function of time with various speakers. In some of these studies, currents derived from analyzing equipment have been used to operate recording meters of various types. In the present system such currents are used to control the elements of the synthesizing device.

What may be considered the first important step toward speech producing was the development of the artificial larynx.\* An important organ of speech production, the vocal cords, was approximately simulated by a mechanical element. The artificial larynx, for example, varies its pitch with the sound pressure applied thus limiting its volume range. The device is entirely mechanical and produces a complex sound wave by an operation basically similar to that of the vocal cords. In the present system the ele-

\* R. R. Riesz "Restoring Speech," *RECORD*, Vol. VIII, p. 64.

ment equivalent to the vocal cords is entirely electrical, and produces an electrical current. The present development also goes further in that all of the important elements of the vocal system have electrical equivalents. The resulting current when supplied

by means of a public-address system.

Figure 3 has also been labelled in accordance with the earlier analogy in which the complete analyzing-synthesizing system was compared to a person mimicking instantaneously the sounds he hears from another speaker.

The system proper does not analyze a sound to produce another directly, but instead analyzes a sound-bearing electrical current and synthesizes a mimicking electrical current. On this basis the analyzing device is the artificial ear of the mimicker and the synthesizing device is the artificial

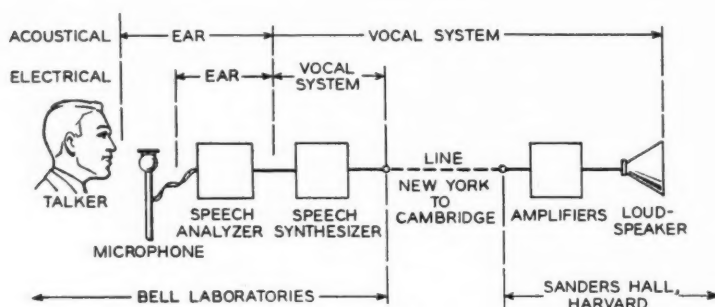


Fig. 3—Circuit arrangement for the demonstration at the Harvard Tercentenary Conference

to a telephone receiver or loudspeaker then produces the characteristic sounds of speech.

The electrical equipment occupies enormously more space than the ear and vocal organs which it simulates, as may be seen from Figure 2, which shows the apparatus mounted in its room in a Transmission Research laboratory.

The circuit arrangement for the demonstration is shown schematically in Figure 3. Speech originating in the laboratory in New York was picked up by a moving-coil microphone; it was analyzed for the three fundamental characteristics of speech sounds, namely, pitch, resonant frequency regions, and loudness; control currents were then passed to the speech synthesizer; in this a new current was produced, manufactured according to the specification of the speech analyzer; and this current was transmitted to the distant auditorium in Sanders Theatre where it was converted into acoustical speech waves

vocal system as shown on the lower added line at the top. On the other hand if we think of an artificial ear as a device for analyzing an acoustic speech wave, then the microphone must be added. Likewise from the acoustic standpoint the artificial vocal system contains the loudspeaker. This is shown by the top line.

Of the two basic elements, the analyzer and the synthesizer, the analyzer is like the ear in that it analyzes speech sounds to determine their previously mentioned basic characteristics of pitch, resonant frequency regions and loudness. The ear mechanism for doing this is not entirely understood, so no direct comparison is practicable between its elements and those of the electrical analyzer.

The processes of the vocal system are better understood. The three fundamental steps in producing speech sounds are: (1) provision of an energy source, (2) modulating energy from this source so that it will contain vibrations in the frequency range audi-



ble to the ear, and (3) selecting from these audible vibrations by resonance to get the various speech sounds.

The energy source is provided by the pressure on the air in the lungs as it is being exhaled. In a normal exhalation this flow of air is not audible. It is made audible by forming a partial closure and forcing the air through under pressure. The air particles which get through then vibrate in rapid complex motions at frequencies that are audible to the ear. For voiced sounds, this partial closure is at the vocal cords which then vibrate at their natural periodic rate, depending on the tension

the talker places on them. For unvoiced sounds the closure is in the mouth passage. Thus "s" is formed by placing the tongue against the hard palate and forcing the air through the narrow opening between them. After these audible vibrations are set up it is still necessary to provide means for differentiating the various sounds from one another. This is done by shaping the mouth to form resonant air chambers which favor certain frequencies but discriminate against others. It is in this way that "ah" differs from "ee" although in both cases the vocal cords are vibrating.

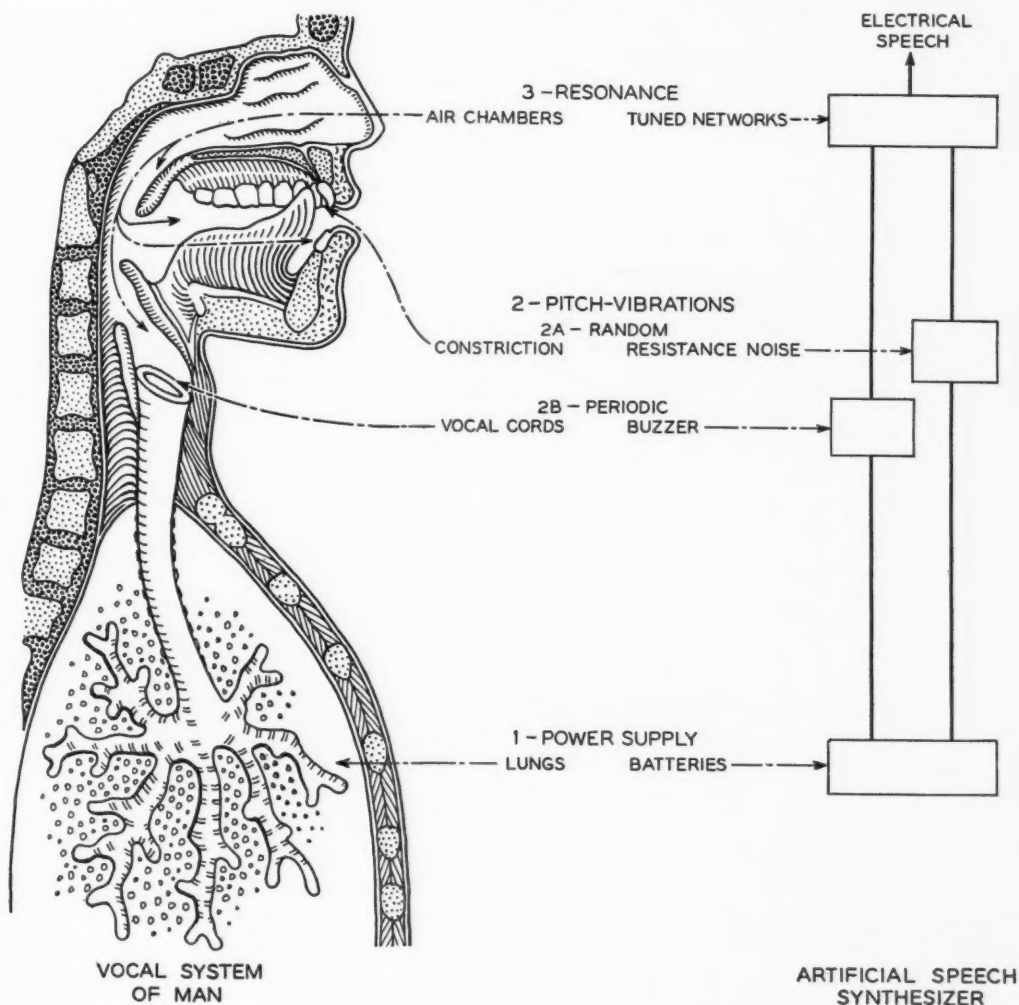


Fig. 4—A comparison of human and electrical systems for speech

Starting from the lungs and going out to the mouth there are indicated in Figure 4, (1) the steady power source in the lungs, (2) the vibration producers in the form of the vocal cords for the voiced sounds and the constrictions in the mouth passage for the unvoiced sounds and (3) the resonance elements in the form of resonant air chambers.

The box schematic of the artificial speech synthesizer in Figure 4 shows its correspondence with the vocal system. The steady power supply is essentially from batteries instead of compressed air in the lungs. The vibrating elements are a buzzer-sounding relaxation oscillator for the vocal cords and a resistance noise for the unvoiced sounds produced at the constriction in the mouth. Resonance, which determines the frequency components to be favored and those to be discriminated against, is provided by tuned electrical networks instead of air chambers as in the mouth. The output, of course, is an electrical, instead of an acoustic wave.

When a speech signal is analyzed by the artificial ear it is resolved into

simple speech-defining signals or control currents. These currents, however, can be modified by introducing circuit elements in their paths. It is, therefore, possible in the laboratory to modify the manufactured speech so that it differs in almost any prescribed manner from the original speech. Thus the pitch may be raised or lowered or kept fixed—each producing an interesting modification of the original voice while preserving the same sense. The pitch of the synthesized speech can be varied independently of the vocal-cord pitch by manipulating a manually operated dial. Also the artificial voice may be used together with the original voice to produce a duet from a single voice. And the harmony is almost perfect!

This voice-controlled voice is seen to manufacture speech in such a way as to give important information about the basic character of speech production. In particular it will permit experiments in which the ear evaluates the effect of various modifications in the character of speech sounds. It provides a new tool for the Laboratories' continuing studies.



## A Metallographic Microscope of Exceptional Power

By F. F. LUCAS

*Telephone Apparatus Development*

FIFTEEN years ago most photomicrographs were made at magnifications of from 100 to 500 diameters and one was seldom encountered which exceeded a magnification of 1000; moreover the results showed much poorer resolution than calculations indicated lens systems then available were capable of giving. Evidently something had been overlooked although the statement was not infrequently made that the ultimate in resolving power had been attained. As a result of studies begun in the Laboratories at that time the useful range of microscopic vision was increased to 3500 diameters with existing equipment by refinements in technique. This work, which extended

over a period of several years, made it apparent that an increase in both resolving and magnifying power could be attained by the design of more stable equipment and the use of a lens system, developed years ago by Abbe, which was particularly well suited for the study of metal structure. As this required important constructional changes in the apparatus, the design of new equipment was undertaken. This involved conferences by the present writer at the Zeiss Works at Jena where the apparatus was constructed. As a result of these efforts the most powerful metallographic microscope thus far attained was produced. It gives excellent definition at 5000 diameters and has an ultimate

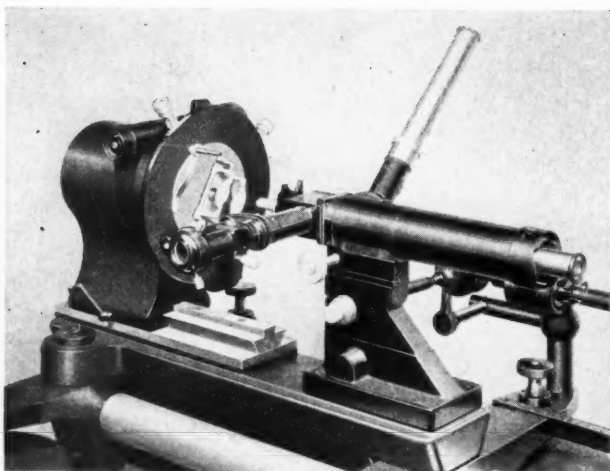


Fig. 1—The specimen which is mounted on the stage at the left is illuminated by light brought in from the side of the microscope

limit of approximately 7000 diameters.

In many respects the new microscope is quite similar to instruments of much lower power. Mechanically, however, its appearance is quite different. In the earlier investigation it had been found that high resolution was most effectively secured by using a low power projection lens with the photographic plate a long way from the lens system rather than a high power projecting lens and a short bellows. This meant an extensive system of bars and couplings to keep the plate rigid with respect to the lens as well as vibration-absorbing supports. These conditions required for convenience of use that the microscope be mounted in a horizontal position.

The microscope and

the camera were therefore mounted on a stand with six supports, each provided with a levelling screw and insulated from the floor by a sponge rubber pad. The main horizontal support consists of three large steel tubes joined at their ends and at two intermediate points by massive yokes. The camera is in four sections so that different lengths of bellows can be used. Photographic plates up to 24 x 30 centimeters can be accommodated. As assembled for operation the complete apparatus is twelve feet long and ten feet wide.

The microscope proper is shown in Figure 1 and its principal parts are given diagrammatically in Figure 2. Since metallographic specimens are opaque they have to be illuminated from the front. This is done by bring-

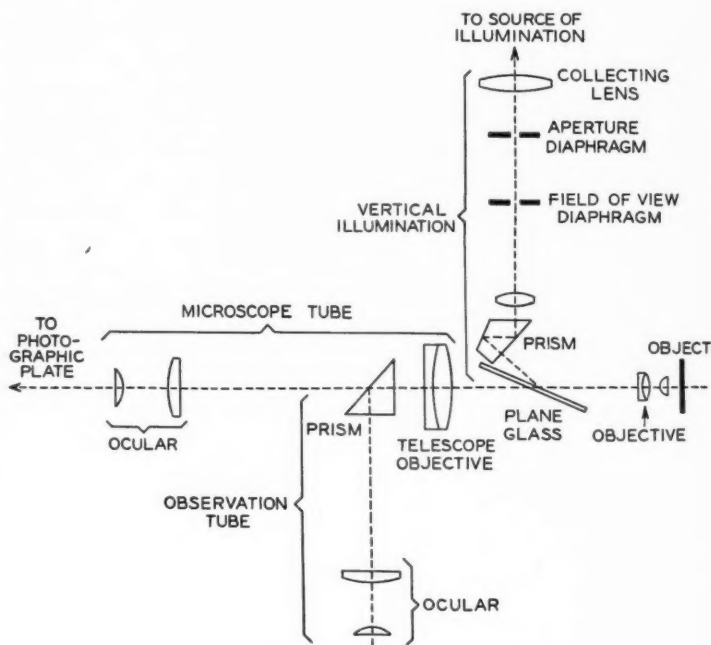


Fig. 2—A simplified diagram of the optical system of the new metallographic microscope



ing light in from the side through a lens system and then reflecting it from the surface of an inclined plane glass directly onto the specimen. Light from the specimen passes back through this glass plate to the camera. Some of the light is lost in this beam splitting arrangement but enough is left to make high power photographs in from one to five minutes.

Another interesting feature is the immersion objective. The front lens of the microscope is set within less than a millimeter of the specimen and the space between is filled with a drop of monochloronaphthalene. An objective of this type increases the light gathering power and the resolution and is generally used when very high magnifications are required.

The horizontal assembly of the microscope also made it convenient to

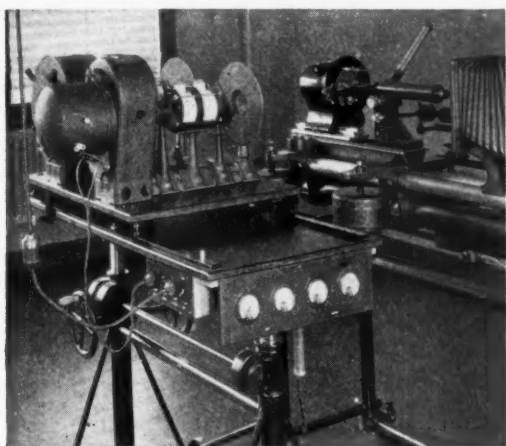


Fig. 3—The illuminator for arc and mercury vapor lamp illumination

illuminate the specimen from the side and to mount the light sources on separate floor stands which can be brought up to the microscope and adjusted. There are two such illuminators provided: one equipped with carbon and mercury arc lamps and the other with a spark generator. The

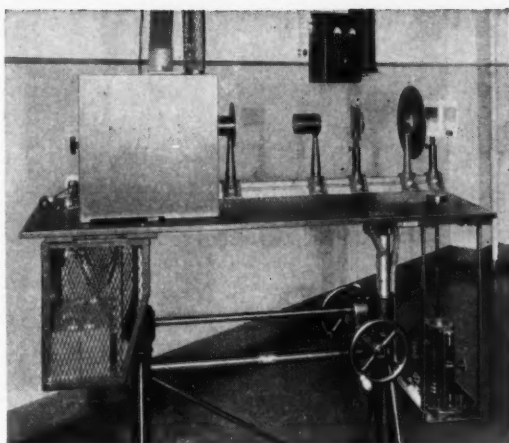


Fig. 4—The monochromator illuminates the specimen with light of a single wavelength

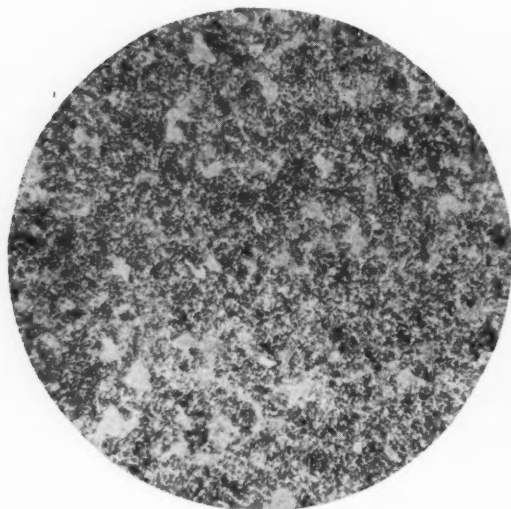
arc lamp is the most intense source available and is generally used in conjunction with filters to limit the frequency band. The mercury vapor lamp gives approximately monochromatic light when suitably filtered. The assembly for the spark source has a prism which spreads the light into a spectrum so that light of a single wavelength can be selected for illumination. The spark source is generated between flat metal strips of the appropriate metal to give illumination of the desired wavelength. These strips are mounted in holders which are enclosed in a wooden box lined with sheet metal and heavy felt to deaden the noise of the spark. The box is connected by a flexible hose to an exhaust fan and flue to remove fumes caused by the discharge.

Focussing the specimen where such high magnifications are involved is a complicated task. At the side of the microscope is an observation tube which can be pushed in and made to reflect light from the specimen into the observing eyepiece. This is used for preliminary adjustment. More careful focussing is obtained by observing the image on the ground glass

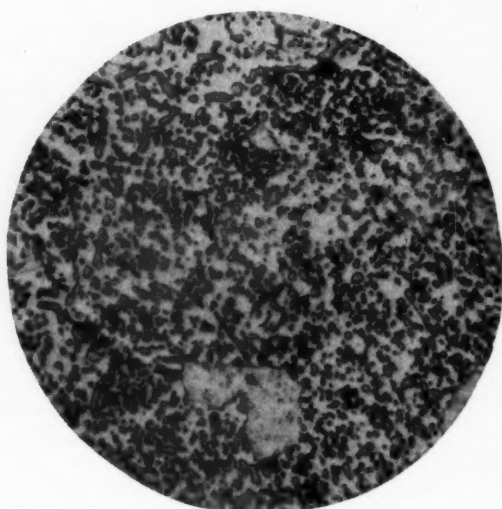
at the far end of the bellows. This distant focussing is made possible by controls which extend along the side of the camera back to the microscope proper. Finally a clear glass is substituted for the ground glass and the image is examined with a magnifying eyepiece to assure the best possible focus. A photographic plate is then mounted in exactly the same position

which was occupied by the clear glass.

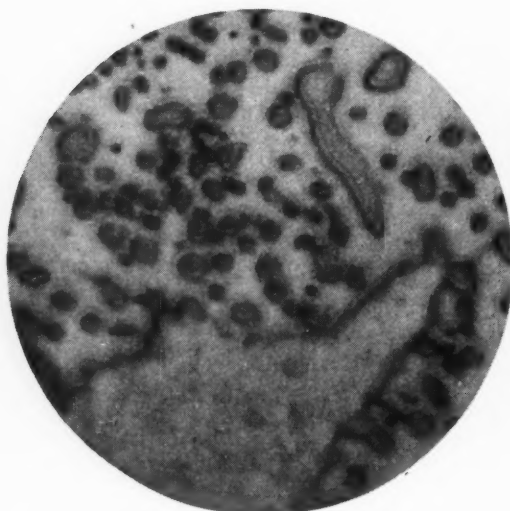
Some idea of the increase in magnification obtained with the new equipment as compared with that previously attained is given by the accompanying series of photomicrographs of a high carbon tool steel specimen. The photograph shown in Figure 5 was taken at a magnification of 200 diameters and represents a high



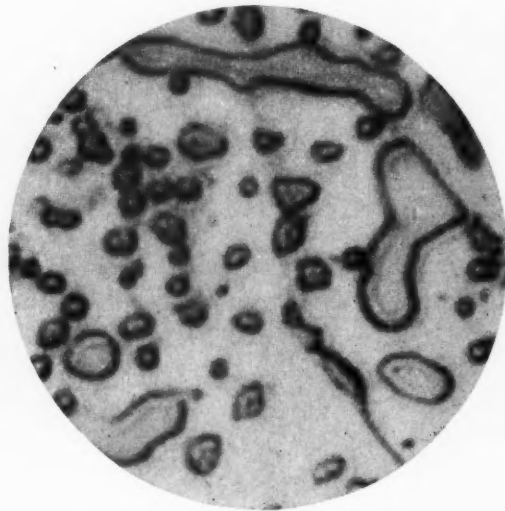
*Fig. 5—A photomicrograph of high carbon steel at a magnification of 200 diameters*



*Fig. 6—At 1000 diameters globular particles of iron carbide become visible*



*Fig. 7—When a magnification of 4000 diameters is employed the small individual particles of iron carbide are clearly visible*



*Fig. 8—Magnification to 6500 diameters shows a clear image with the iron carbide particles embedded in the iron matrix*

resolving power for a micrograph made prior to the studies reported here. In this specimen the carbon is present as carbide which is suggested by the mottled appearance but the magnification is not high enough to resolve the particles. In Figure 6 the same specimen is shown magnified to 1000 diameters. The larger particles of carbide show here quite clearly in globular form. The photograph of Figure 7 was taken with a high resolving power lens system at 4000 diameters. Finally Figure 8 shows the particles enlarged to 6500 diameters without serious breakdown of the image. The matrix of iron in which the particles are embedded appears clear and structureless and the carbide particles stand out distinctly against the background. The increase of resolution, as distinguished from magnification, attainable with the new microscope is brought out by comparing the micrographs of chrome-iron shown at 1000 diameters in Figure 9 and at 4000 diameters in Figure 10. Extremely fine structural details are clearly shown at the higher magnification.

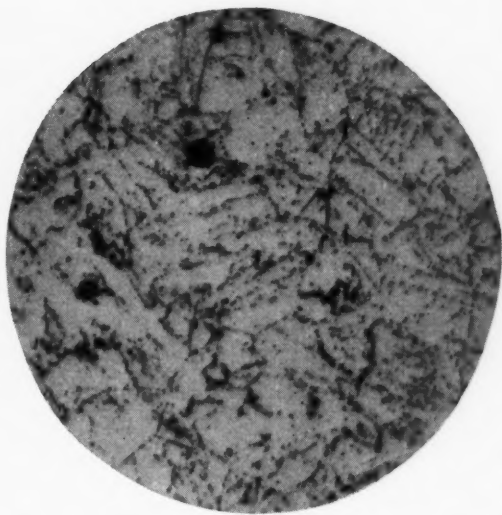


Fig. 9—Chrome-iron specimen magnified to 1000 diameters

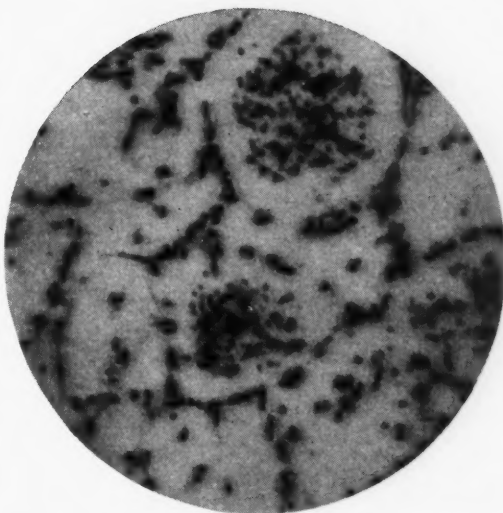


Fig. 10—Increased resolution is shown at 4000 diameters

Another factor which has contributed to the successful use of such high magnifications is the improvement which has been made here at the Laboratories in the preparation of metallographic samples.\* Specimens similar to those shown in the accompanying photographs would formerly have appeared rough and scratched and the carbide particles would have been surrounded by halos and diffraction bands at the magnifications used here. The methods of illuminating the specimen at that time were also unsatisfactory and would have made the particles appear much larger than their actual size.

These attending difficulties emphasize the fact that success in extending the useful range in high power metallography has depended not only on increasing the magnification but also upon taking extreme care to control the many other factors involved such as mechanical stability, freedom from outside disturbances, illumination of the specimens and preparation of the specimen itself.

\*RECORD, December, 1935, p. 116.



## Impact Tester for Organic Finishes

By H. G. ARLT  
*Chemical Laboratories*

ORGANIC finishes are now made which are so hard and adhere so firmly that a nail coated with them can be driven into hard wood without appreciably damaging the finish. With this surprising degree of toughness attainable the importance of making tests to determine the impact resisting qualities of different finishes, so that good finishes can be distinguished from poor ones, is evident. Such impact tests give information regarding the adherence characteristics of a finish to its base material and the deformability under impact stress of the organic coating—qualities which measure the ability of the finish to withstand the handling incident to assembly and subsequent use in the field. To carry out tests of this character more effectively, a new impact machine has recently been developed by the Laboratories.

The earliest type of impact test was of a qualitative nature and consisted of striking the finish under test with the rounded end of a hammer. The next development was to make the test quantitative by dropping the head of the hammer from definite heights. This type of test is also made by using hardened steel balls as the impact device. Tests made in this fashion can be used to measure the resistance of a finish to a single blow of selected energy value or to repeated blows of either the same or different energy levels.

To obtain better control and to simulate the battering action to which a switchboard keyshelf is subjected by falling plugs the so-called "Woodpecker machine" was developed. With this device, the blows are delivered by a spherical hammer located at the end of a cam-actuated lever arm and the



intensity of blow is controlled by a coiled spring. Testing machines of this type have been constructed in the Laboratories to deliver a series of blows of constant energy either at a single spot, or on a small area over which the blows are evenly distributed by providing a mechanism to move the specimen. These devices have been used for testing keyshelf facings and similar materials as well as for testing finishes.

More recently, the impact resistance of finishes has been tested by another type of apparatus in which the blow is delivered by a hammer loosely pivoted on a rotating shaft in such a fashion as to scuff the surface while subjecting it to a glancing blow, thus removing any loosened particles of finish. The first device of this type was arranged to deliver repeated impact blows of uniform intensity uniformly over a small area. It soon became apparent, however, that the



Fig. 1—Finishes are tested by striking them glancing blows with a rotating hammer. H. C. Theuerer is conducting the test

information needed was not so much the number of blows of a given intensity which a finish can withstand as how hard a single blow a finish will

resist. To meet this requirement the early design was modified to provide a constantly increasing speed of rotation of the shaft controlling the energy level of impact while the base panel was moved so that each new blow would strike a fresh but closely adjoining area.

Since it has been found necessary to determine the resistance of finishes to both constant and increasing

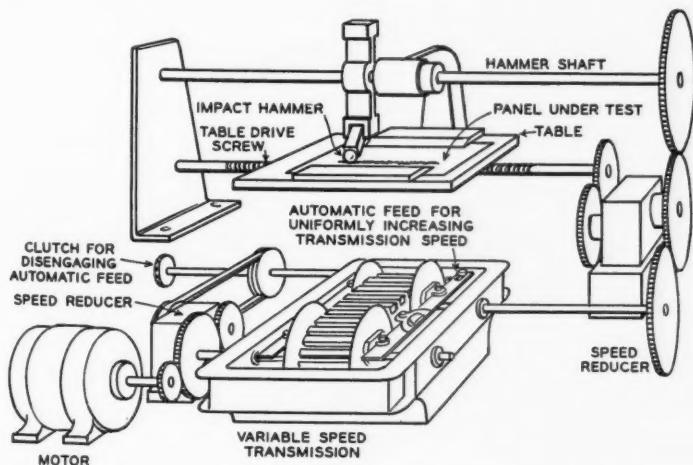


Fig. 2—The hammer and test panel are motor driven through a variable speed transmission which can be set to automatically increase the blow delivered by the hammer

impact, an apparatus has been developed in which both of these features are combined. In this new machine the panel is moved longitudinally past the rotating hammer in such a manner that the finish under test is either subjected to a number of impacts of uniform intensity on



*Fig. 3—The left panel was struck a series of blows of constant intensity. Breakdown under blows of increasing severity is shown by the change of color in the path of the hammer on the right panel*

the same area or to a series of blows of gradually increasing intensity, where each blow strikes a different spot on the finish.

In the new apparatus the specimen is clamped to a carriage which moves in a horizontal plane under a rotating hammer so that the finished surface receives a glancing blow each time the hammer revolves. The intensity of the blow delivered can be controlled by varying the speed of rotation. The hammer and carriage are driven in synchronism by a motor which advances the specimen two one-hundredths of an inch for each revolution of the hammer, thus presenting a fresh portion of the finish for each blow. The variable hammer speed is obtained by a double set of belt-driven cone pulleys which are located be-

tween the motor and the hammer shaft. By spreading one pair of these cones and bringing the other pair together the effective speed ratio of the pulleys can be changed. The spreading is controlled by a drive screw attached to the motor which moves the specimen so that the speed of the hammer automatically increases as the specimen advances. When blows of constant intensity are required the screw is advanced to the point which gives the desired hammer speed and disengaged. The speed of rotation then remains constant as the specimen advances. The impact hammer is enclosed under a cover equipped with a double layer of safety glass through which the action on the finish may be safely observed while the test is being made. The appearance of the test specimen is shown in the accompanying illustration. When blows of

constant intensity are delivered the specimen is moved back and forth under the hammer until the finish is destroyed and the number of repetitions is taken as a gauge of impact resistance. With blows of increasing intensity the test is continued through one complete cycle of hammer blows, in which case the intensity required for destruction by a single blow is taken as the measure of resistance. The rate of the hammer in r.p.m. at the point of failure can be found from a previous determination of the speed corresponding to different positions of the specimen.

The new impactometer permits rapid and economical impact testing of finishes over a wider range of impact values than have previously been available with this type of device.



## Vacuum Tube Improves Selective Ringing

By L. J. STACY  
*Systems Development*

THE standard subscriber set used in the Bell System for four-party selective ringing employs a relay as well as a polarized ringer at each station. The arrangement of such a circuit is indicated in Figure 1, which shows the connections at the four subscriber stations on a full-selective circuit. Superimposed ringing current is employed, which uses an alternating current superimposed on either a positive or negative direct current. Ringing is applied across the line, and one side of the line is grounded. At the subscriber stations, the relays are all connected across the line through condensers, and all four relays operate whenever ringing is applied, and connect their respective ringers to ground. The ringers, however, are divided; half

of them are connected to one side of the line and the other half to the other. While all of the relays operate for all calls, current will flow through only the two ringers connected to the side of the line not grounded during the application of ringing. The ringers are of the polarized type, however, and the two connected to the same side of the line are oppositely poled so that one will ring only with a positive superimposed current and the other only on a negative superimposed current. In this way only one bell will ring for any one call.

Recent improvements in the neon tube suggested that it might be used at the subscriber station to take the place of both the relay and the condenser in the subset, and at the same time to give better operating condi-

tions with a lower original cost and decreased maintenance expense. With this in view, the 313A vacuum tube (described in the following article) was developed. This is a three-element tube with two control electrodes, either of which may be used as an anode or cathode, and an operating anode. As used in the new subscriber set one of the control electrodes is always used as a cathode, and the other is used as a control anode to secure breakdown or ionization of the tube at a potential of about 70 volts. A resistance of 100,000 ohms is connected in series with this control anode to limit the current in the control gap to a value sufficient only to ionize the gas so as to allow current to flow in the main gap.

The connection of the tube at the four stations of a full-selective line is shown in Figure 2. When station 1 is to be rung, "negative" ringing current is applied to the "ring" side of the line, and the "tip" side of the line is grounded. Control gaps of tubes at stations 1 and 3 break down, but since "positive" current can flow only from the anode to cathode, the tube at station 1 alone will pass current enough to ring its bell. To ring station 3, "positive" current is applied to the ring side, and as the anode at the tube is connected to that side of the line, current will flow to operate

the ringer. Stations 2 and 4 respond in like manner to ringing current flowing through the tip side. The tube set will operate on the same type of ringing and requires even less current than the relay set, so that no change is required in the central-office ringing supply. It will also operate on the same line with relay sets.

Several advantages arise from the use of this new tube. With the relay-type subscriber set, current flowed through two ringers and four relays at each call, while with the vacuum-tube set, because of the asymmetry of the tube, which makes it conductive to current passing in one direction only, current flows only in one ringer for each call. This reduces the voltage drop due to line resistance, and permits a longer ringing range for four-party service.

The tripping relay at the central office, whose function is to open the ringing circuit when the subscriber answers, must be adjusted not to operate on the ringing current, but to operate promptly on the small additional current that flows when the subscriber lifts his receiver from the hook. Since, with the vacuum-tube set, current flows through only one ringer at any one time, the amount of ringing current is less, and as a result the adjustment of the tripping relay is simplified.

The new circuit completely eliminates bell tapping and false ringing sometimes caused by dialing or switching operations on the line. Another advantage of the tube is that it can be mounted in any position, and requires no adjustment. The relay, on the other hand,

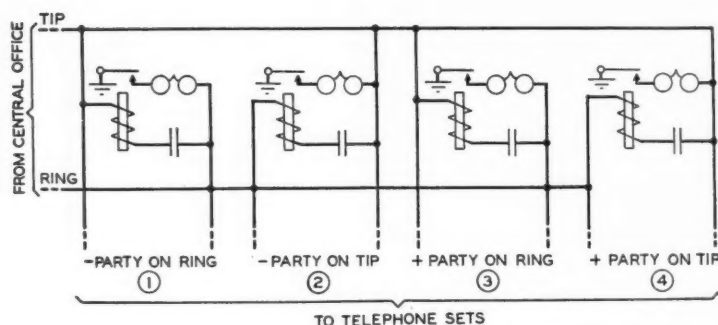


Fig. 1—Substation connections for a four-party full-selective circuit using relay-type subscriber sets



has to be mounted vertically to insure proper action, and in addition a certain amount of adjustment is required to insure its proper functioning.

Several years ago, an eight-party semi-selective ringing system was adopted using relay sets and superimposed ringing current. One of the essential differences between the eight-party semi-selective relay sets and the four-party full-selective relay sets is that higher impedance relays and ringers are used for the eight-party set. These impedance requirements were imposed partly by the adjustment requirements for the tripping relay, and partly by the necessity for high impedance to noise induction, such as from power lines. Since the use of the tube set leaves the connection to ground at the subscriber station open to normal voltages, no noise induction results even with the use of low impedance ringers, and since as previously pointed out, the tripping conditions for the tube set are considerably less severe than with the relay set, the vacuum tube subscriber set gives appreciable improvement for eight-party semi-selective service as well as for four-party full-selective service.

Another application of the vacuum-tube subscriber set is in areas where relay sets are now used on two-party lines to avoid interference from foreign a-c. earth potentials or induction. Since the vacuum tube is open-circuited except for the duration of the

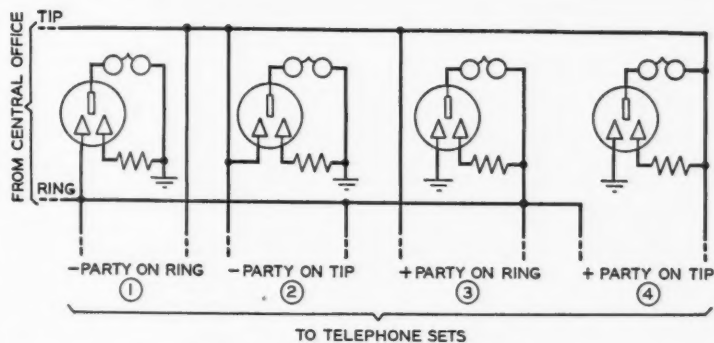


Fig. 2—Connections for the vacuum-tube subscriber set for a four-party full-selective circuit

ringing, the new sets put the subscriber's station on the same footing as in individual line service, so far as noise is concerned. Also, in two-party service, the new sets avoid false ringing from foreign voltages up to the breakdown voltage of the main gap, which is of the order of 175 volts peak. In four-party service protection against false ringing extends to the breakdown voltage of the control gap, about 70 volts peak.

The 313A tube can be provided more cheaply than the relay now used, and since it requires no adjustment, considerable savings both in first cost and maintenance of subscriber sets will result from its use. Accelerated life tests on the 313A tubes have indicated that the tubes will permit satisfactory ringing service for at least 300 hours actual operation. Average station traffic requires the tube to conduct current for only about 6 hours per year of service. After long usage or excessive current flow, both breakdown and sustaining voltages of the tubes rise, thus reducing the current through the ringer. So far no tubes have been destroyed during test except by mechanical breakage.

## The 313A Vacuum Tube

By S. B. INGRAM  
*Vacuum Tube Development*

**C**OLD-CATHODE gas-filled tubes are well known as sources of illumination for special purposes. The two-watt neon-filled lamps, which operate in standard lighting circuits, are commonly used as indicator lights because of their low power consumption. These glow lamps have only two electrodes, but by the addition of a third electrode, and by properly controlling the tube geometry and gas filling, tubes may be produced which have many interesting properties as circuit elements. A program for the development of such tubes has been undertaken in

the vacuum-tube development department, and parallel investigations of their circuit possibilities have been in progress in several different parts of the laboratories. A number of applications have been made, but by far the most important to date is in the four-party selective-ringing circuit described in the previous article. In this circuit the tube operates in the subscriber set, a fact of considerable interest since this is the first time that vacuum tubes have found general application in that part of the telephone plant which is located on the subscriber's premises.

The overall appearance of the 313A tube is shown in Figure 1. In finished tubes the entire glass bulb is covered with a coat of black enamel to render the glow invisible, but in the photograph the enamel has been left off so that the elements may be seen. The two semi-circular discs are known as the control electrodes. The small nickel wire projecting above the glass sleeve is the anode. The two control electrodes are coated with an activated surface of barium and the envelope is filled to a pressure of several centimeters of mercury with a mixture of the rare gases, neon being the principal constituent. The physical properties of the barium surface together with the nature of the gas filling combine to produce a discharge device that operates on a low voltage. The sustaining voltage—that is, the potential drop between one of the control electrodes and the anode when the tube is

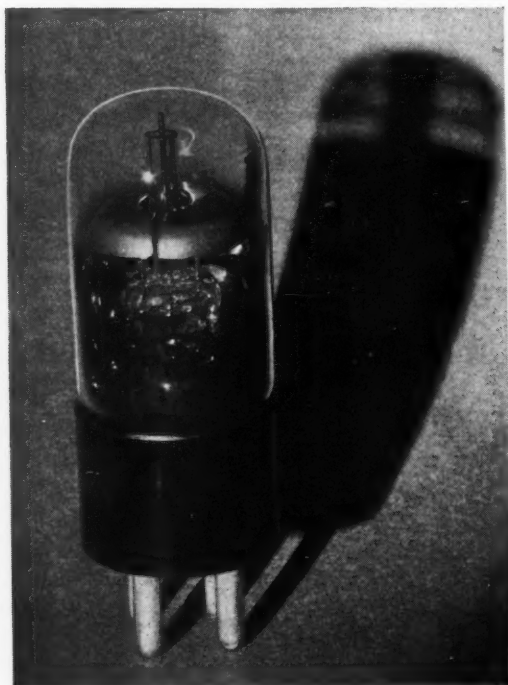


Fig. 1—The 313A cold cathode gas-filled tube

conducting—is about 75 volts. This compares with drops of two or three hundred volts in structures of similar geometry but with unactivated electrodes and other gas fillings.

As a circuit element, the 313A tube may be used to perform as a relay, as

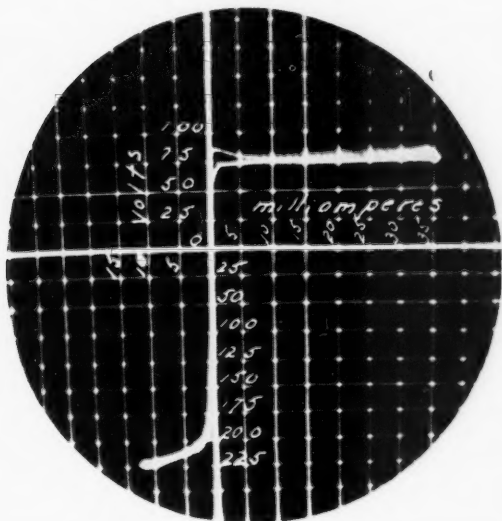


Fig. 2—Current-voltage characteristic of the main gap is asymmetrical and exhibits a constant voltage for all positive currents

a voltage regulator, or as a rectifier. Within the tube there are two conduction paths, one between the two control electrodes, known as the control gap, and the other between one of the control electrodes and the anode, known as the main gap. Each gap is characterized by a breakdown voltage and a sustaining voltage. In the main gap, as a result of the wide spacing of the electrodes, these values are quite widely different, about 175 volts and 75 volts respectively. In the control gap, where the electrode spacing is small, the corresponding values are about 70 and 60 volts. This difference in breakdown voltage of the two gaps enables the tube to act as a relay.

The current-voltage characteristic of the main gap, taken on a cathode-

ray oscillograph by G. H. Rockwood, is shown in Figure 2. To obtain these characteristics the tube was connected in a circuit as shown in Figure 3, where the control gap—in series with a high resistance—is used to obtain a low breakdown voltage. Two features of this characteristic are of particular importance. One is the flatness of the voltage curve for positive currents, which makes the tube suitable for voltage regulation, and the other is the lack of symmetry in voltage for positive and negative currents, which allows the tube to act as a rectifier. With positive current, the potential remains essentially constant at about 75 volts for all values of current, while with negative current, practically no current flows at all until the potential reaches 150 volts, and then the voltage rises rapidly with an increasing negative current. This asymmetry of current-voltage characteristic is caused by the difference between the large activated surface of the control electrode and the small unactivated surface of the wire electrode. With the latter positive, large discharge currents may flow, but with either of the semi-circular electrodes

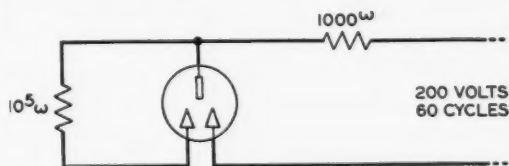


Fig. 3—This typical rectifier circuit was employed to obtain the current-voltage characteristic of the main gap

positive, much higher voltages are required to produce the same current. The characteristic for the control gap is similar except that the sustaining voltage is lower because of the narrower gap, and that the current-voltage relationship is symmetrical

because of the similarity in size and shape of the two control electrodes.

A typical relay circuit for the 313A tube is shown in Figure 4. A biasing voltage of somewhat less than the control-gap sustaining voltage is impressed on the control gap. If now a

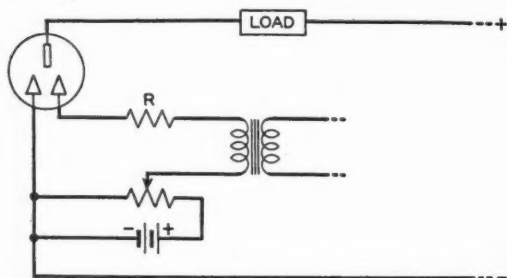


Fig. 4—A typical relay circuit utilizing the 313A vacuum tube

signal voltage large enough to raise the control-gap voltage above breakdown is applied in series with this biasing voltage, the current that flows between the control electrodes will produce sufficient ionization to break down the main gap. The amount of current required is of the order of one microampere. Load currents up to 30 milliamperes, the peak current rating of the tube, may then be safely drawn in the load circuit. Removal of the signal voltage will have no effect on the current in the load circuit, which must be interrupted to restore the tube to the non-conducting condition.

To obtain regulating action, the tube could be connected into a circuit as shown in Figure 5. The control gap alone is used because of its low breakdown voltage, and it regulates at about 60 volts. A d-c supply of varying potential greater than 60 volts is connected to the terminals at the left of the diagram. The control gap at once breaks down and forms a shunt path across the load. Because of the characteristics of the tube, however, the voltage across this gap, and hence

across the load, remains constant at 60 volts regardless of the supply voltage or the load current.

The asymmetrical characteristic of the tube, as already mentioned, enables it to act as a rectifier, since it will readily pass current in one direction and not the other. Because of the high breakdown voltage of the main gap, however, it is best to use the tube as a combination of relay and rectifier, employing the control gap to start the flow of current at a much lower voltage. Such relay-rectification could be obtained with a tube arranged as in Figure 3, where the 1000-ohm resistance represents the load.

If this circuit were supplied from a 110-volt 60-cycle source, no appreciable current would flow during the negative half of the cycle, because as is evident from Figure 2, no current will flow even at the peak negative

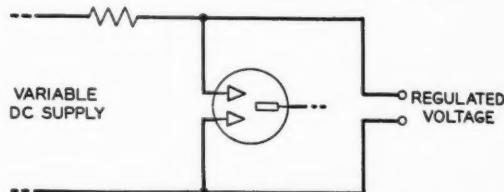


Fig. 5—A typical circuit for employing the tube as a voltage regulator

voltage. As the current turns positive, however, the control gap will break down when the potential reaches about 70 volts and current will then flow until the potential drops below 60 volts, toward the end of the positive half-cycle. This action will repeat for each cycle, but for potentials less than 70 volts the tube is open-circuited—no current will flow in either direction. It is this action that is employed for four-party selective ringing already referred to. A number of other possible applications will suggest themselves to those familiar with the technical phases of the telephone plant.



## I

*Tonlar bay at the New York Long Lines building. The Tonlar is described on page 117 of this issue.*

## II

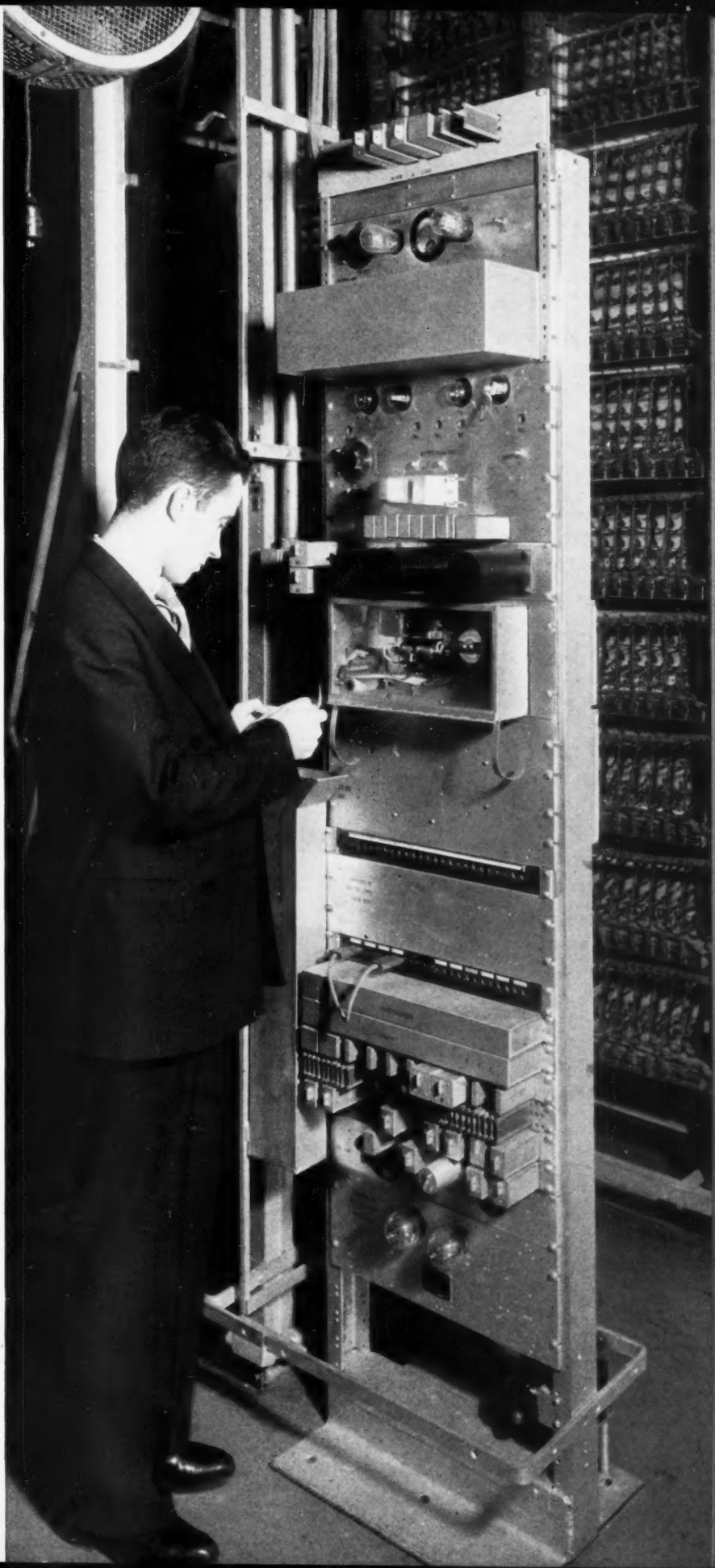
*In the Development Shop, standard relay parts are assembled into new combinations for use in experimental circuits.*

## III

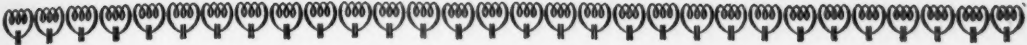
*Measuring tensile strength with a 600 pound Amsler testing machine.*

## IV

*Crossing the Delaware at Trenton: the coaxial cable is dwarfed by the standard telephone cables in service between New York and Philadelphia.*







## News of the Month

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### DR. COLPITTS TO VISIT JAPAN AS IWADARE LECTURER

E. H. COLPITTS has been chosen as the fifth lecturer to visit Japan in accordance with the terms of the Iwadore Foundation. The invitation, which was tendered by the Japanese Institute of Electrical Engineers, reached Dr. Colpitts in July and specified four weeks of next spring as the period during which the addresses are to be made.

The Iwadore Foundation is so called because of the gift in 1929 of 500,000 yen to the Japanese Institute of Electrical Engineers by Mr. Kunihiro Iwadore, who was for many years Managing Director of the Nippon Electric Company. This company was organized in 1899 as a joint undertaking with the Western Electric Company for the development of telephony in Japan and for the manufacture of communication equipment. The principal of the gift is held as a trust fund and half of the income pays the expenses of selected Japanese students of electrical engineering for graduate study in the United States. The other half of the income pays the expenses of distinguished electrical engineers who are invited to give a series of lectures at various Japanese universities. Previous lecturers were A. E. Kennelly, C. E. Skinner, Irving Langmuir and D. C. Jackson.

### PIONEERS VISIT LABORATORIES

AS A SPECIAL FEATURE of the fifteenth annual meeting of the General Assembly of the Telephone Pioneers, held in New York on October 23 and 24, a visit to the Laboratories was arranged. Approximately 250 delegates and guests gathered in the Auditorium and were welcomed by Dr. Jewett. The other speakers, introduced by John Mills, were O. B. Blackwell who

spoke on *Transmission Development*, A. F. Dixon on *Systems Development*, R. L. Jones on *Apparatus and Outside Plant Activities*, and O. E. Buckley on *Research Activities*. An informal opportunity to meet members of the Laboratories' Staff followed these talks. The arrangements for this meeting were handled by G. F. Fowler of the Bureau of Publication.

### COLLOQUIUM

A. H. WHITE spoke on *Molecular Rotation in Organic Crystals* at the October 19 meeting of the Colloquium. Mr. White briefly reviewed the background and the papers previously presented to the Colloquium on this subject and then discussed the results of more recent work. Molecular symmetry and freedom of atomic motion within the molecule have been found to be conditions favoring its rotation within the crystal. Several recently measured compounds were described as examples of these considerations and the manner in which they are believed to operate. Dielectric measurements have given information about the degree of rotational motion of the molecule in the crystal, the natural frequency of this motion, and the relative motions of atoms within the molecule in the solid state.

At the November 2 meeting, Professor Erwin Meyer of the Institut Für Schwingungsforschung in Berlin, an authority in the field of vibration research, spoke on the organization of his institute and discussed the recent work that has been done there.

### NEWS NOTES

L. MONTAMAT has been elected a member of the Executive Committee of the Telephone Pioneers of America to serve during 1937 and 1938.



MR. MONTAMAT and G. B. THOMAS attended the Bell System Personnel Conference held at the Lido Country Club from October 27 to 30.

A. F. DIXON took part in a conference of the Plant Department of the Up-State area of the New York Telephone Company. This was held at Bolton Landing on Lake George on September 16 to 18.

C. D. OWENS received the degree of Master of Arts from Columbia University last June.

C. H. WHEELER and G. P. TROMP visited Kearny to discuss the manufacture of universal keys.

E. S. SAVAGE was at Hawthorne Works to discuss indicating alarm-type fuses and call-indicator display plates.

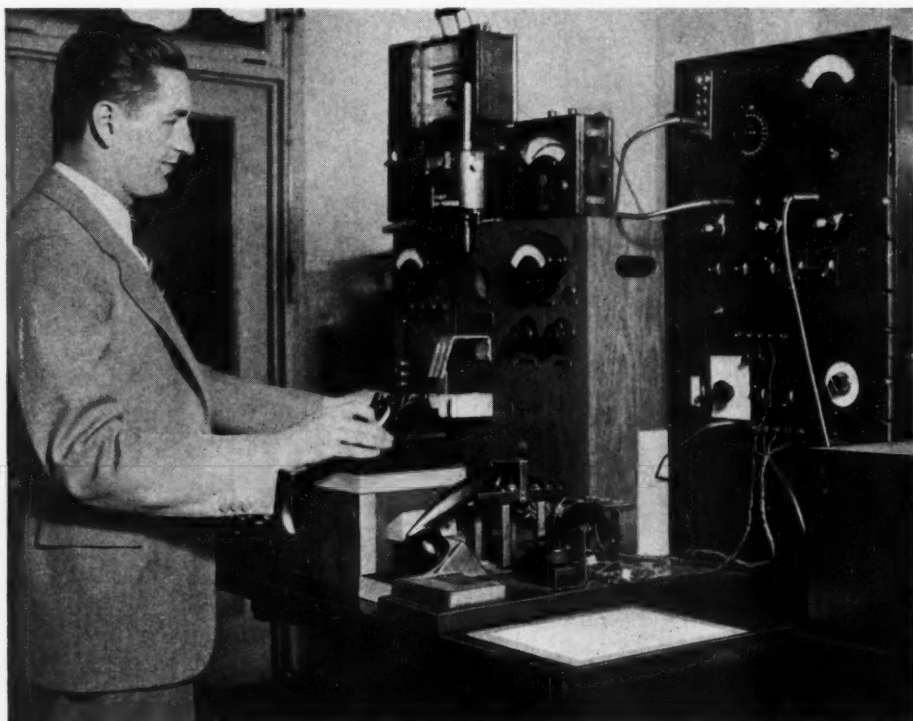
E. L. FISHER and L. S. INSKIP, together with engineers of the New Jersey Bell Telephone Company, visited Boonton, Bernardville, Dover and other points in New Jersey for observations of the effects of lightning on telephone protectors.

SEVERAL CENTRAL offices in Brooklyn were visited by E. Montchyk, C. E. Nelson and H. W. Purcell for tests on base-metal contacts used in dial equipment.

\* \* \* \* \*

JAMES W. FARRELL, Secretary and General Attorney, completed twenty-five years of service in the Western Electric Company and the Laboratories on the eleventh of October. Mr. Farrell received the LL.B. degree from New York University in 1909 and the LL.M. degree in 1910. He entered the employ of the Western Electric Company as a law clerk in 1911. Four years later he was made Assistant Secretary, and in 1919 was assigned the additional duties of Assistant Attorney. He was placed in charge of the work of the Secretary's Department in 1923 and, later in the same year, was made Secretary of the Employees' Benefit Fund Committee.

Upon the incorporation of the Laboratories in 1924, Mr. Farrell was elected its



*Laboratory model of a multi-function set for testing transmission efficiency, dial speed, plunger operation and other physical characteristics of the combined subscriber set and three-piece handset*





*J. W. Farrell*

Secretary and was placed in charge of its general legal affairs, except those relating to patents, trade marks and copyrights. As Secretary he is responsible for the corporate records and documents of the company; has charge of issues and transfers of capital stock and keeps records of all meetings of the stockholders and directors. As General Attorney he is responsible for the legal form of contracts, leases, bonds and other documents of the company, tax and other reports, and statements and affidavits as required by law; for the proper title of property of the Laboratories and for its corporate status in the various states in which operations are conducted. He is responsible for advising the various departments of current legislation and decisions of courts and commissions affecting the company's business, and for the rendering of opinions on legal questions affecting the company's business and relations.

\* \* \* \* \*

G. H. STEVENSON completed twenty-five years of service in the Western Electric Company and the Laboratories on the fourth of November. After graduation from Glasgow University, Scotland, in 1906 with the degree of B.S., he remained there for a year as an assistant in the Department of Electrical Engineering. For the next four years he was with the firm of Barr and Stroud in Glasgow engaged in the manufacture of optical range finders and naval fire-control apparatus. In 1908

*December 1936*

he made a trip to this country to install a torsion meter aboard the steam turbine-driven yacht *Vanadis*. As a result of this trip he decided to come back to this country, which he did in 1911, immediately joining the Engineering Department of the Western Electric Company in the Physical Laboratory. During the next few years he made several contributions in the substitution of base metals for platinum contacts in relays and switching equipment. In connection with this work he developed an experimental criterion which has been used ever since as a guide to the proper selection of suitable contact materials.

Early in the World War Mr. Stevenson was placed in charge of a laboratory group engaged in the development of radio apparatus for the Army and the Navy. In 1920 he transferred to the Apparatus Development Department in charge of filter development. Mr. Stevenson joined the Patent Department in 1924 and since then has been concerned with patent matters relating to filters and other types



*G. H. Stevenson*

of transmission networks and with the radio apparatus and systems developed by the Laboratories.

\* \* \* \* \*

ON OCTOBER 25 F. F. Lucas addressed the Metropolitan Chapter of the American Society of Safety Engineers on *Late Developments in High-Power and Ultra-*

[iii]

*Violet Microscopy—Their Value from an Accident-Prevention Viewpoint for Detecting Flaws in Metal Structures.*

W. A. BISCHOFF represented the Laboratories at a meeting of Technical Drawing Associates which was held at Schenectady for the purpose of a discussion of general questions on drafting practices.

A. R. SWOBODA was at Hawthorne the greater part of October discussing enameled wire requirements and arranging for apparatus winding samples for performance tests.

O. H. DANIELSON visited Kearny to discuss problems of transmission and outside plant testing apparatus.

C. F. HANSON was at Kearny in connection with the 12A transmission measuring set.

E. ST. JOHN with E. Weller of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company were in New Haven and Boston recently for the trial installation of a new aerial-cable support.

O. B. COOK visited M. Klein and Sons' plant in Chicago in connection with linemen's climbers.

J. B. BISHOP and M. N. YARBOROUGH accompanied O. M. Brymer of the Western Electric Company to Fort Monmouth to discuss radio transmitter problems.

C. D. HOCKER recently attended a committee inspection of test specimens exposed on the racks of the A.S.T.M. at Sandy Hook, Altoona, Brunot Island, and State College.

R. J. KENT was in Wolcott, New York, in connection with a wire-burying plow.

W. J. THAYER was at Hawthorne for several weeks on problems relating to the manufacture of the combined hand-telephone set. O. A. Shann also spent ten days at Hawthorne on this same project and on coin collectors.

W. B. HOBBS of Hawthorne spent several days at the Laboratories discussing with Western Electric engineers manufacturing problems on coin collectors.

J. R. TOWNSEND spoke on *Bend Testing* before a combined meeting of the Institute of Metals and the Iron and Steel Division of the A.I.M.M.E., at Cleveland on October 22.

R. L. GERUSO and J. P. GUERARD were in Kearny in connection with cable-sheathing problems.

T. S. HUXHAM visited the Gorham Company in Providence to discuss the manufacture of special alloy molds.

P. T. HIGGINS visited Hawthorne to discuss manufacturing problems concerning the production of step-by-step switches.

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MEMBERS OF THE LABORATORIES TO WHOM PATENTS WERE ISSUED  
DURING AUGUST, SEPTEMBER AND OCTOBER

F. B. Anderson	T. L. Dimond	J. A. Krecek	S. A. Schelkunoff
W. L. Betts	W. H. Edwards	J. J. Kuhn	S. P. Shackleton
B. G. Bjornson	W. C. Ellis	E. Lakatos	F. F. Shipley (2)
D. G. Blattner	E. C. Erickson	B. F. Lewis	E. G. Shower
F. E. Blount	J. G. Ferguson	G. A. Locke	H. O. Siegmund (3)
H. W. Bode	L. P. Ferris	L. A. MacColl	T. Slonczewski
R. Bown	C. E. Germanton	R. F. Mallina	B. Stallard
L. J. Bowne	C. W. Halligan	R. C. Mathes (3)	E. M. Staples
H. Broadwell	R. K. Honaman	B. McKim	V. Subrizi
H. T. Budenbom	G. H. Huber	E. R. Morton (2)	J. K. Swart (3)
G. W. Burchett	L. S. Inskip	C. C. Munro	L. D. Tebo
E. D. Butz	H. E. Ives (3)	S. F. Nelson	B. O. Templeton
R. W. Chesnut	O. B. Jacobs	H. Nyquist	R. V. Terry
R. E. Crane	J. B. Johnson	V. B. Pike	D. E. Trucksess
A. M. Curtis	D. F. Johnston	J. P. Radcliff	L. Vieth
R. A. Cushman	E. H. Jones	F. W. Reynolds	E. F. Watson
C. J. Davisson	L. W. Kelsay	R. R. Riesz	H. Whittle
C. S. Demarest (2)	F. S. Kinkad	C. H. Rumpel	L. G. Young
R. L. Dietzold			M. K. Zinn

IN CHARGE of Development Shop work since its consolidation in New York in 1907, John W. Upton saw every present-day type of telephone apparatus take



*J. W. Upton*

form. His death on November 14, terminates a host of associations of which even the most casual was tinged with the same warmth that suffused his friendships.

Mr. Upton, on April 24, 1901, entered the Western Electric Company in Chicago on repair work of telephone apparatus. Two years later he transferred to the Experimental Shop in Clinton Street which was soon placed under his supervision. In 1907 when the engineering work carried on in Chicago, Boston and New York was consolidated in one department in New York, he was placed in charge of the shop development work. He continued in this capacity until 1931 when the combined development and building shop work of the Laboratories was consolidated into one department and he became Shops Manager.

As head of the shop work in conjunction with the laboratory development of telephone apparatus, Mr. Upton had a significant part in the advance made in telephonic communication within the past thirty-five years. The various apparatus parts and the first assembled models of machine-switching apparatus were made in the shops under his foremanship. He likewise supervised the shop manufacture

of the original models of the printing telegraph, sound picture and the exacting television apparatus, as well as the experimental transoceanic radio apparatus developed by the Laboratories.

\* \* \* \* \*

A CLOSE TO twenty-seven years of association with the Bell System came with the tragic death of Howard Broadwell on October 30. After receiving the degree of B.S. in Electrical Engineering from the University of Pennsylvania in 1909, Mr. Broadwell joined the Western Electric Company at Hawthorne. On completion of the one-year student course there, he entered a branch of the Apparatus Design Department then located at Hawthorne, and in 1912 this work brought him to New York.

Three years later Mr. Broadwell transferred to the dial apparatus group where, except for a brief period of vacuum tube development during the war, he had since been engaged in the design of various units for dial and toll telephone systems. Among these were a series of motor-driven interrupters for test and service in dial circuits, and motor-driven transmission



*Howard Broadwell*

regulating equipment for controlling the effects of temperature variations on carrier circuits in cable. One device, a stroboscope for checking the speed of subscriber dials, he described in the Bell Laboratories RECORD for July, 1933.



*Tower for loud speakers of high-power announcing system installed at Roosevelt Raceway*

W. J. FARMER together with members of the Long Lines Department visited various locations in New Jersey to select a site for field studies of cable sheath. He also visited Rockville Center, Long Island, to observe cable sheath now in service at that point.

L. B. COCKE and D. T. BELL spent some time at Roosevelt Raceway testing and operating the high-power announcing system which was used during the Vanderbilt Cup Race on Columbus Day. R. E. Kuebler assisted in the operation of the system. The complete installation was inspected by O. M. Glunt, T. E. Shea, R. A. Miller and H. C. Curl. In this system nineteen sound projectors on top of the 100-ft. tower were pointed to cover the entire field, which is approximately a mile long and a half-mile wide. Twelve smaller loudspeakers were placed at the mid-point

of the tower to serve the grandstand. The tower on top of the grandstand, shown at the left in the accompanying illustration, supports the judges' stand, and below it may be seen two sound-proof booths, one for local announcements and entertainment through the announcing system and the other for radio broadcasting. In the foreground is a test car used to direct the proper "focusing" of the high-power loudspeakers throughout the entire raceway.

H. A. BREDEHOFT discussed problems in connection with the manufacture of ringers with engineers at Hawthorne.

PAPERS PRESENTED by members of the Research Department at the recent meeting of the American Physical Society in New York were *A Problem in Communication—The Evolution of the Crystal Wave Filters* by O. E. Buckley as part of the Symposium on Physics in Industry; *The Dependence of Hearing Impairment on Sound Intensity* by J. C. Steinberg and

M. B. Gordner; and *Ferromagnetism: Some Theoretical and Practical Aspects* by R. M. Bozorth. Dr. Bozorth also delivered a paper, *Ferromagnetic Properties of Single Crystals*, at the Colloquium of the General Electric Research Laboratory held at Albany last month.

H. A. PIDGEON, in Albany, inspected vacuum tubes in repeater stations.

H. A. LARLEE visited Hawthorne and conferred with the Manufacturing Department engineers on matters pertaining to station instruments. On the same trip Mr. Larlee also visited St. Louis and Pittsburgh and with the Laboratories field engineers at these places discussed performance of instruments with the engineers of the operating companies.

A. W. HAYES attended the quality survey conference on the 625 transmitter held by the Western Electric Company at



Hawthorne and discussed various instrument matters with Hawthorne engineers.

J. T. L. BROWN was at Hawthorne on the development of testing methods for the new three-piece handset.

E. BRUCE discussed and demonstrated ultra-short-wave directive antennas at the first meeting of Radio Colloquium for 1936-37 season held at the Holmdel Laboratories in New Jersey.

B. J. KINSBURG was in Philadelphia in connection with the testing of transmission signals on the New York to Philadelphia coaxial cable.

H. E. HARING attended a meeting of the Electrochemical Society held at Niagara Falls.

K. G. COMPTON visited the Atlas Powder Works at Tamaqua, Pennsylvania.

R. O. GRISDALE and J. R. FISHER were at the F. J. Stokes Machine Company, Philadelphia, to discuss the automatic pressing of electrical resistances.

W. J. CLARKE and C. S. FULLER visited the plastic molding plant of the General Electric Company at Pittsfield to discuss molding problems.

W. C. JONES attended a meeting of the Society of Motion Picture Engineers at Rochester and with C. Flannagan and R. Wolf of Electrical Research Products presented a paper *Modern Loud-Speaking Telephones and Their Development*.

J. M. FINCH and W. J. KIERNAN with A. M. Lynn of the Western Electric Company visited three mills of the Steven's Paper Company, two at Westfield, Massachusetts, and one at Windsor, Connecticut, in connection with condenser paper problems. They also visited the Dexter Condenser Paper Mill located at Windsor Locks, Connecticut.

C. L. LUKE spent several days with Dr. V. W. Meloche at the University of Wisconsin studying polarographic analysis.

C. C. HIPKINS and E. E. WRIGHT were at Palmerton, Pennsylvania, to discuss with engineers of the Research Laboratories of the New Jersey Zinc Company the finishing of zinc and zinc alloys. Mr. Hipkins also spent several days at Hawthorne on colored handset finishes and other finishing problems.

K. K. DARROW gave an address, *The Concept of Spin*, at a meeting of the New England Section of the Physical Society held at Bowdoin College, Maine. Dr. Darrow was Chairman of a meeting held in New York by the Metropolitan Section in conjunction with the anniversary meetings of the American Institute of Physics.

CROSS-TALK AND attenuation measurements were made on the New York to Philadelphia coaxial cable by J. F. Wentz, T. M. Odarenko and G. B. Engelhardt at Princeton and Philadelphia.

H. E. MENDENHALL with C. E. SNOW of the Western Electric Company visited radio stations WSB, Atlanta, and WHAS, Louisville, to discuss vacuum tube problems with engineers of these stations.

AN ARTICLE entitled *Modified Sommerfeld's Integral and Its Application* by S. A. Schelkunoff appeared in the October issue of the *Proceedings of the Institute of Radio Engineers*.

E. J. KANE was at Hawthorne on problems concerning the crossbar system.

A LIGHTING DEMONSTRATION at the

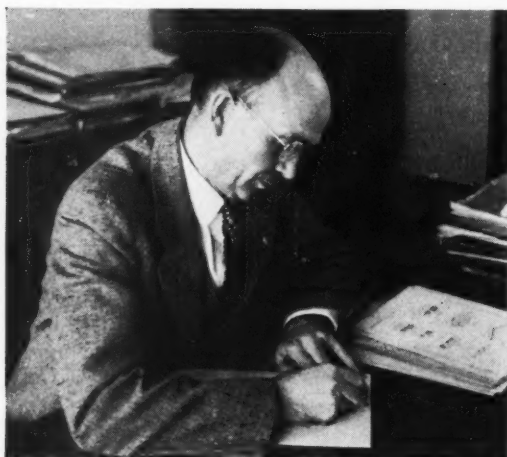


W. E. Mougey (digging) and J. H. Ingmanson exhuming corrosion test specimens of tape-armored cable installed at the Forked River, New Jersey, test plot

Westinghouse Lamp Works at Bloomfield, New Jersey, was attended by E. K. Eberhart, P. W. Sheatsley and L. A. Yost.

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S. B. KENT, who completed twenty-five years of service with the Western Electric Company and the Laboratories on the third of October, graduated from Oberlin College in 1908 with the degree of A.B. He then attended Cornell University where, in 1911, he received his M.E. degree with a certificate of specialization in Electrical Engineering. He entered the



*S. B. Kent*

student course of the Western Electric Company where he remained for about eight months, the last part of this time being spent in installation work in Minneapolis. In May, 1912, he returned to Hawthorne in the Engineering Department where he engaged in the development and inspection of loading coils. He transferred to the Physical Laboratory at West Street in 1913 continuing his work on the development of loading coils including the air-gap type used on the original transcontinental telephone line and the dust-core type.

In 1916 Mr. Kent joined the Patent Department where he was concerned for a year with patent matters relating to loading coils, relays and circuits. In 1918, following a period when he was out on sick leave, he transferred for health reasons to the Inspection Department of

the Western Electric manufacturing organization where, for two years, he inspected timber products at Traverse City, Michigan, Dillsboro, North Carolina, Norfolk, Virginia, and Atlanta, Georgia. Mr. Kent returned to the Patent Department in New York in 1920 to handle carrier-current and radio apparatus, submarine cables and low-frequency signalling systems; in 1926 he supervised the preparation of patent applications relating to transmission, submarine signalling, telegraphy and vacuum tube structures. Since 1927 he has been engaged in patent work relating to picture transmission, television and photo-electric cells.

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ON THE THIRD of October E. J. Johnson, Special Equipment Engineer in the Systems Development Department, completed a quarter century of service in the Western Electric Company and the Laboratories. After receiving the E.E. degree from the University of Minnesota in 1911, Mr. Johnson joined the student course of the Western Electric Company at Hawthorne. Early in 1912 he went to Minneapolis on installation work, returning late that year to Hawthorne where he spent about eight months in the Drafting Department. During the next five years, in the Engineering Department, he engineered orders for central-office equipment, then checked specifications written by a group of engineers, and finally became an engineer in the group preparing standards covering manual-office equipment.

Mr. Johnson came to New York for six months in 1918 to study the new panel dial system with a view to securing such technical data as would be needed by the Western Electric Company at Hawthorne to provide adequate engineering facilities for handling an anticipated annual production of panel dial central office equipment. He returned to New York again in 1919 heading up a group of Hawthorne engineers and draftsmen who engineered for manufacture the first panel dial central offices to be placed in the field, among them New York Metropolitan Toll Tan-



*E. J. Johnson*

dem, Pennsylvania, Academy and Walker Offices. This group later became a part of what is now known as the Systems Development Department.

From 1922 to 1926, Mr. Johnson was in charge of the equipment development of the panel and step-by-step systems, which included the development of equipment structures, apparatus, wiring and cabling layouts and central office arrangements to meet traffic, operating, maintenance and manufacturing requirements. During the early stages of the panel program he taught evening classes on the subject. In this connection he prepared a very complete text-book on the panel system.

In 1926 Mr. Johnson transferred to his present position of Special Equipment Engineer in charge of two groups of engineers. One group handles field trial installations and the construction of models of new developments for all types of central office facilities while the other, an analyzation group, provides consulting services to the Western Electric Company on all types of central office orders received from the associated companies. In addition, Mr. Johnson is responsible for the selection, training and placing of all college recruits for the Equipment Development Department.

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W. C. REDDING has been continuously engaged in lead-covered cable development work during the twenty-five years of

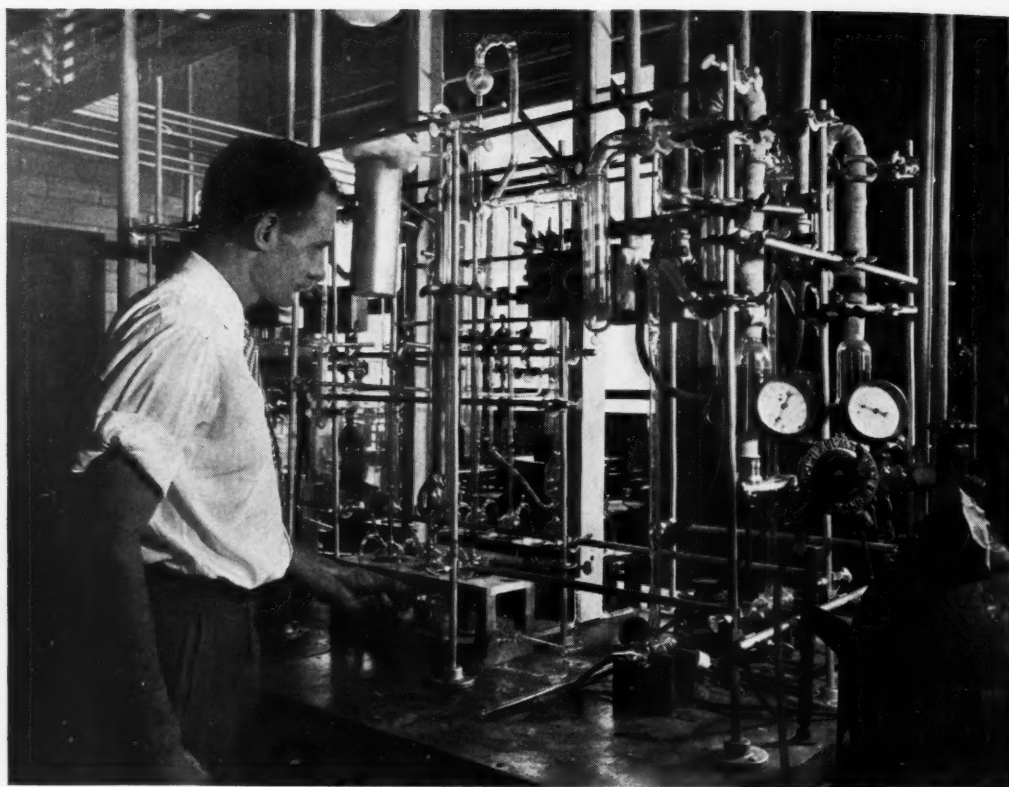
service which he completed on the second of October. Mr. Redding received the B.S. degree from Worcester Polytechnic Institute in 1905 and the E.E. in 1906. He then became associated with the American Steel and Wire Company at Worcester, Massachusetts, and engaged in the design and manufacture of power cables. In 1911 he joined the cable development group in the Engineering Department of the Western Electric Company in New York. A little over a year later he transferred to Hawthorne where for the next five years, with the exception of an interval of one year spent in New York, he had charge of groups handling the design and development of various types of lead-covered telephone cable.

Since 1918 Mr. Redding has been in charge of the New York group engaged in general engineering of lead-covered cable and providing a point of contact with the American Telephone and Telegraph Company for the other groups of Laboratories' cable development and design engineers located in the various plants of the Western Electric Company. In addition to the general engineering work, this group conducts special cable trial studies



*W. C. Redding*

at the Chester Field Laboratory in New Jersey. Among the special projects in which Mr. Redding has had prominent responsibilities was the installation in 1923 of rubber-insulated submarine cable to Catalina Island in California.



*Apparatus developed by the Chemical Laboratories for the micro-analysis of very small quantities of gases or of impurities in mixtures of gases. W. G. Guldner is shown making a pressure reading.*

R. C. JOHNSON inspected an installation of a combined distributing frame in the step-by-step office at State College, Pennsylvania.

F. W. TREPTOW discussed cabling problems in connection with the crossbar system with engineers of the Western Electric Company at Hawthorne.

F. P. WIGHT has been in Richmond, Virginia, to assist in the installation of teletype line-concentration units.

L. D. FRY inspected cabling and cable clips at Albany.

POWER TRANSMISSION over cable pairs was tested at various points on the New York to Philadelphia coaxial cable by C. H. Achenbach, J. L. Larew, R. P. Jutson and H. M. Spicer.

C. H. ACHENBACH and H. T. LANGBEER visited diverter-pole generator installations at Newark, Delaware.

J. M. DUGUID observed the operation of the initial installation of 803-C ringing power plant at Miami.

M. A. FROBERG was at Baltimore in connection with power plant changes at the Plaza-Calvert central office.

J. H. SOLE made voltage regulation studies at Norfolk and discussed diverter pole generators with the manufacturers at Cleveland.

H. M. SPICER visited the Palmer Electric and Manufacturing Company at Waltham, Massachusetts, to discuss voltage relays to be used with the coaxial-cable power plants.

AT THE DALLAS District meeting of the A. I. E. E., papers were presented by A. D. Knowlton on *Switchboards and Signaling Facilities of the Teletypewriter Exchange System* with G. A. Locke and F. J. Singer as co-authors, and by F. W.



Reynolds on *A New Telephotograph System*. Dr. Reynolds, en route to and from the meeting, conferred with various people concerned with telephotography at Chicago, Kansas City, St. Louis and Atlanta. Following the meeting Mr. Singer went to San Francisco, Portland and Seattle for discussions with various groups of engineers of the fundamental plans for teleprinter switching in the Pacific Telephone and Telegraph Company's territory.

H. KEPPICUS supervised the installation of the equipment for the field trial of broad-band carrier-on-toll cables at Toledo, Ohio, South Bend, Indiana, and intermediate offices.

L. D. PLOTNER was at Hawthorne to discuss with Western Electric engineers problems of testing step-by-step apparatus.

A. WEAVER was in Worcester early in October in connection with a trial installation of a new TWX unattended subscriber set.

W. J. LACERTE spent several days at Hartford testing the new 248-type step-by-step relays, and the new armature for 222 type relays. A. A. Mayer also spent a day in Hartford on this project.

W. W. CRAMER was in Minneapolis and Aberdeen (North Dakota) for a few weeks, in connection with a new toll-line subscriber set for teleprinter service.

A NEW YORK to CHICAGO telephone circuit equipped with 44-A-1 telephone repeaters modified for "stabilized feedback" will shortly undergo a service trial. In preparation for this trial R. D. Fracassi and R. S. Hawkins tested modifications of all of the repeaters on the circuit. S. T. Meyers participated

in the various tests that were made at New York, Morristown and Allentown.

S. A. WEEDEN visited the toll offices at Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, Chicago, Detroit and Cleveland on an inspection of the toll-testing facilities. He was accompanied by F. MacMillan of the Long Lines Department, and for a part of the trip by W. H. Schrader of the Operating and Engineering Department and F. H. Best of the Laboratories.

R. S. BAILEY has been loaned to the Western Electric Company for several months to assist in the preparation of a legal case involving patents.

TESTS OF THE type-K cable-carrier system being installed for trial between Toledo and South Bend are being made by M. M. Bower, H. G. Jordan, J. B. Kinzer and L. H. Schwartz at Toledo,



*Assembling a terminating unit for the New York-Philadelphia coaxial cable*

West Unity, La Grange and South Bend. M. A. Weaver, L. Hockgraf and F. W. Amberg have also been in Toledo and South Bend on this project.

E. S. WILCOX spent a week in New York in connection with tests of crosstalk on open-wire circuits which he is conducting at Fort Worth.

DURING THE FIRST three weeks of November, A. A. Heberlein visited Washington, Charlotte and intermediate points to make preliminary tests of a new type of tube in a type-C carrier system.

TESTS BEING MADE of high-frequency interference in open-wire circuits were studied by R. P. Booth, F. A. Leibe and A. L. Whitman at Phoenixville.

H. A. AFFEL spoke on *Carrier Telephone Systems—Application to Railroad Circuits* at the annual convention of the Telephone and Telegraph Section of the Association of American Railroads held in Washington on October 7. Among others who attended this convention were H. H. Abbott, L. R. Montfort, J. T. O'Leary, P. H. Pierce, D. Robertson, A. H. Schirmer, E. O. Scriven and H. M. Trueblood.

ON OCTOBER 23, Mr. Affel spoke on *High-Frequency Broad-Band Wire Transmission* before a joint meeting of the Chicago section of the A.I.E.E., the I.R.E., and the Western Society of Engineers.

W. W. STURDY and R. V. TAYLOR have been in West Chester, Pennsylvania, making field tests on connections between power neutrals and telephone cables.

C. C. CASH has returned to New York from Lamar, Colorado, where he was engaged in studies of lightning interference with carrier circuits.

P. J. CONWAY, who retired from active service on February 2 of this year, died suddenly on October 20. Mr. Conway joined the Western Electric Company in 1918 and at the time of his retirement was a member of the Plant Shops Department.

M. R. MCKENNEY was in Montreal, Canada, during October on patent matters.

H. A. FLAMMER and H. S. WERTZ were at the Patent Office in Washington in connection with routine patent work.

WORK ON THE trial of the new type-H single-channel open-wire system is being conducted between Charlotte, N. C., and Florence, S. C., by N. Monk, L. R. Montfort and D. Robertson.

W. W. SCHORMANN attended the 25th National Safety Congress and Exposition held from October 5 to 9 in Atlantic City.

B. C. GRIFFITH and W. H. TIDD are engaged in high-frequency tests on open-wire lines between Garden City and Lamar.

W. L. BLACK visited Louisville in connection with proposed new speech input equipment for the studios of WHAS.

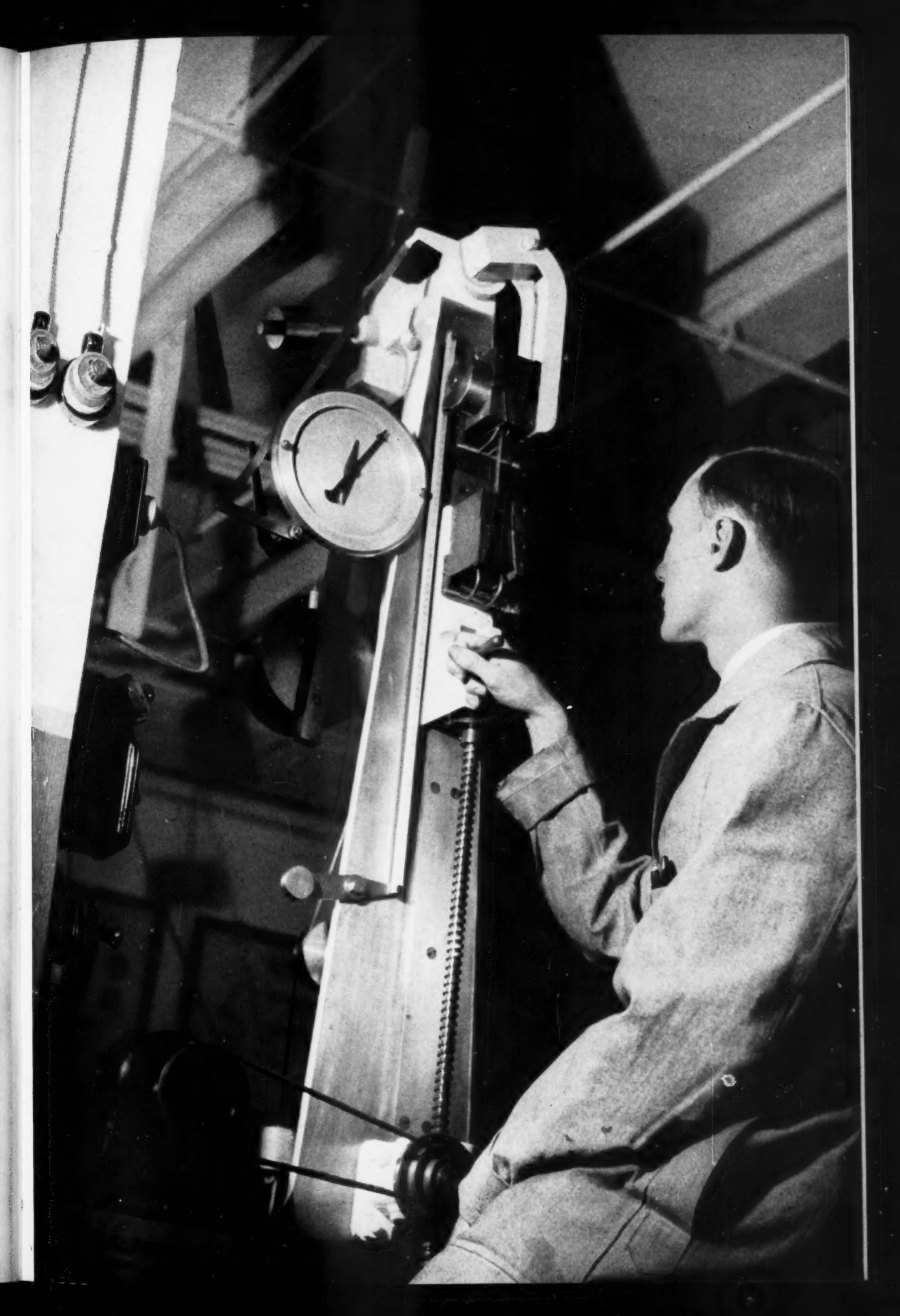
J. F. MORRISON supervised the installation of a 355D-1 (5 kilowatt) radio transmitting equipment at Station KFBB for Buttrey Broadcast Inc., Great Falls, Montana. This station is the first to put into commercial service one of the new shunt fed antennas which was described by Mr. Morrison in an article entitled *The Grounded Vertical Radiator* in the August issue of the RECORD.

O. W. TOWNER supervised the installation of high-fidelity conversion parts to modernize the 106B (1 kilowatt) radio transmitting equipment of Station WDSU, New Orleans.

W. H. C. HIGGINS visited Winthrop, Massachusetts, in connection with work for the U. S. Coast Guard.

R. K. HONAMAN was in Harrisburg on November 6 to confer with engineers of the Bell Telephone Company of Pennsylvania in regard to inductive coordination problems. In the evening he spoke to the Harrisburg Natural History Society on eclipses of the sun.

FOUR-STAR SERVICE EMBLEMS signifying the completion of twenty years of service with Bell System were awarded to five members of the Laboratories during the month of November. In the Apparatus Development Department, R. C. Kamphausen completed twenty years of service on the nineteenth, P. C. Seeger on the twenty-first and H. B. Smith on the twenty-seventh; in the Research Department, J. J. Collins on the twenty-seventh; and in the Systems Development Department, Miss J. A. Burns on the eighth.









# Tonlars

By L. G. ABRAHAM  
*Toll Transmission Development*

**W**HEN Napoleon first came into power, he found certain semaphore stations in operation for the transmission of messages. For long-distance transmission these were unreliable because some of the stations were poorly manned and there were gaps which could only be covered under favorable weather conditions. By adding a few new stations at strategic points and improving the facilities, personnel, and maintenance at existing stations, Napoleon established a system which permitted messages to be transmitted over great distances with remarkable speed and accuracy for those days. Even with this system when messages were transmitted over long distances there were occasional mistakes and failures to complete messages due to residual imperfections in the system, and therefore a mounted courier was occasionally dispatched with a copy of a test

message, which was checked eventually against the message received over the semaphore circuit. If the two copies did not agree, suitable adjustments were made along the line, perhaps by liquidating part of the personnel, until a satisfactory test message could be obtained.

With modern telephone circuits there is an analogy to the courier-borne test message in the "lining-up" measurements of the circuit, which are made usually in the early hours of the morning. A testing current of known magnitude is impressed at one end of the circuit and a measurement made of the amount received at the other end. If this received amount deviates too much from the normal for the circuit, necessary tests and adjustments are made to restore the performance to the proper value. In a long and complex circuit, however, there are many elements which may

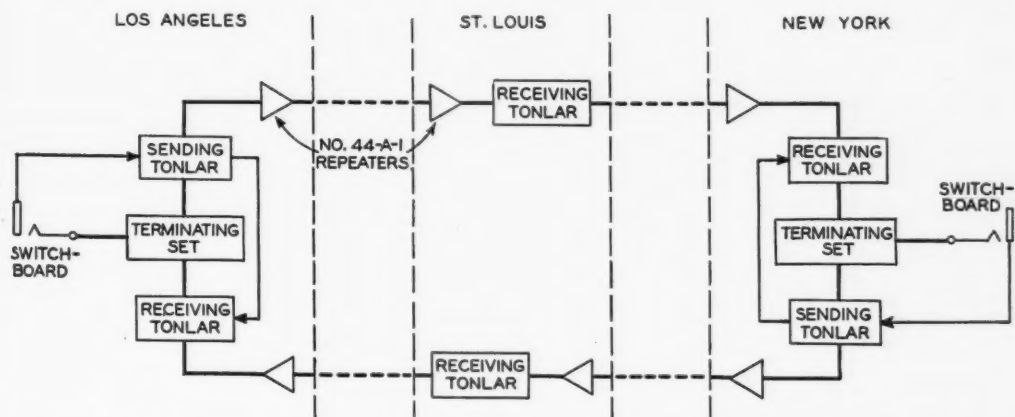


Fig. 1—In a circuit from New York to Los Angeles, sending tonlars would be used at both terminals, and receiving tonlars at the terminals and at St. Louis

give rise to small residual variations despite the use of pilot wire regulators, pilot channel regulators, battery regulators and other such apparatus for maintaining the loss at a constant value. During the period between "lining-up" measurements, therefore, the circuit may wander from its nominal loss, even though it might start with the best possible adjustment. To investigate the benefits of occasionally compensating for these variations, an experimental tonlar has been developed by the Laboratories.

The tonlar, deriving its name from the initial letters of the phrase "Tone Operated Net Loss Adjuster Receiving," is essentially a device that will dispatch a "test message" just prior to each regular message, and, at the distant end, compare the amount of test current received with the desired amount at that point. If the amount received differs from the desired amount, an adjustment in the circuit net loss will be made automatically, and left there until the next test message is sent. The improvement due to tonlar operation will be small compared to the improvements made possible by pilot wire regulators, pilot channel regulators, battery regulators, and circuit maintenance, but will be large compared to the residual

variations caused by slight imperfections in these devices.

Figure 1 is a schematic diagram showing the application of the tonlar system to a circuit connecting New York and Los Angeles, on which a commercial trial is being made. Each receiving tonlar is essentially an adjustable gain repeater. When the circuit is picked up by the operator, say at New York, the sending tonlar is actuated, the operator is cut off from the toll circuit for a short interval, and a specified amount of 800-cycle power is sent into the transmitting repeater. This power passes through the four-wire circuit to St. Louis, where it enters the receiving tonlar. The receiving tonlar adjusts its gain until a given predetermined output is obtained from it. At the same time, the 800-cycle power has been transmitted over the line to Los Angeles, and the receiving tonlar at this point also adjusts its gain to obtain the desired output power, subject to the changes made at St. Louis. The net result is that the overall circuit net loss at 800 cycles is adjusted to a given predetermined value immediately after the operator picks up the circuit.

In the model at present on trial, the receiving tonlar at Los Angeles also fulfills other functions, one of which is to actuate the sending tonlar at Los

Angeles so that a test is also made in the other direction. Arrangements are also incorporated in the present model for periodic tests, which occur at approximately thirty-minute intervals from each end of the circuit, and adjust the net loss of each direction of transmission. The purpose of these periodic

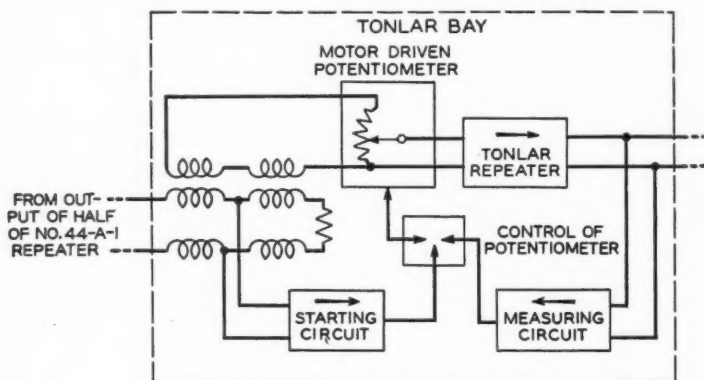


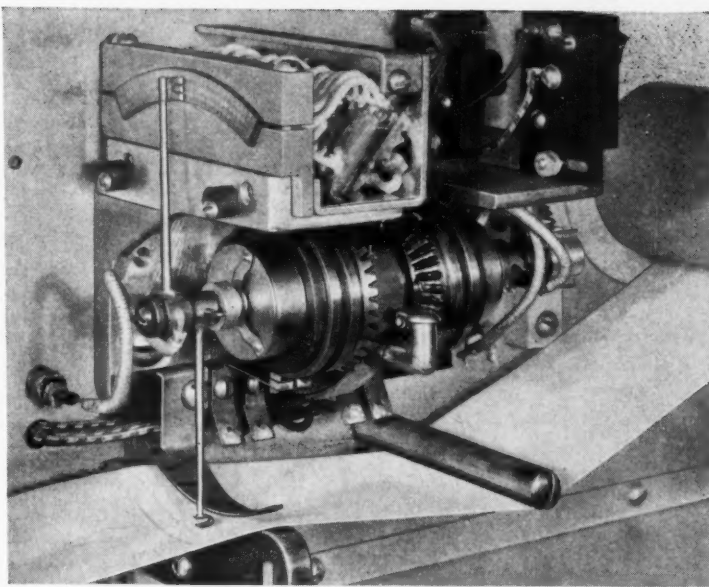
Fig. 2—Simplified schematic of the receiving tonlar

tests is to detect circuit trouble which occurs during times when the circuit is idle.

Figure 2 shows a schematic diagram of the receiving tonlar. The circuit involved is looped at the output of the 44-A-1 repeater through the tonlar bay. The receiving tonlar may be divided into the motor-driven potentiometer, the tonlar repeater, the starting circuit, and the measuring circuit. The tonlar repeater consists of a one-tube amplifier with sufficient gain to make the overall loss of the receiving tonlar to through transmission equal to zero on the average. This repeater has the same overload characteristics as the 44-A-1 repeater, so that it does not introduce appreciable distortion. In tandem with this repeater is the motor-driven potentiometer, by means of which the overall loss of the receiving tonlar is adjusted.

The starting circuit consists of an amplifier-detector with tuned circuits so arranged that power of 800 cycles tends to operate the start relay, while currents of other frequencies tend to prevent this operation. When the start relay has operated, a ground is placed on the adjusting circuit, which permits the motor-driven potentiometer to operate should an adjustment be necessary.

The measuring circuit consists of an amplifier-detector circuit which, if the start relay is operated, causes the motor-driven potentiometer to adjust the tonlar repeater gain until the



*Fig. 3—Motor-driven potentiometer of the experimental receiving tonlar showing the tape on which a continuous record of the adjustments is made*

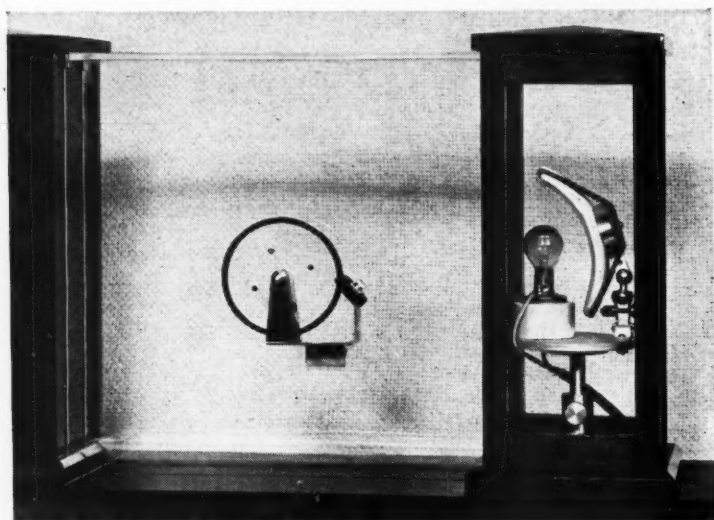
output that is desired is obtained.

The potentiometer, shown in Figure 3, consists of thirty-three segments, each step producing a change of approximately .3 db, thus giving a total range of 10 db, or  $\pm 5$  db from an average gain of zero. The brush of the potentiometer is mounted at the end of a hollow nickel tube in the form of a truncated cone. This is of very little weight and can start, cover the entire range, and come to rest in less than 0.4 second. A wax paper record, which moves continuously, is marked by a stylus at the opposite end of the brush arm, thus making a continuous record of the tonlar settings.

When the potentiometer reaches either end of its available range, it mechanically interrupts the circuit that controls the electromagnetic clutches, and thus prevents damage due to over-shooting. In addition, it sounds an alarm which calls an attendant to find the cause of the trouble on the circuit.

The present model seems to be substantially satisfactory from a transmission standpoint, although considerable simplification is desirable. The principal field of use is expected to be the longer voice frequency and carrier circuits. With this system, the nominal variations of the circuit net loss of the longer circuits are reduced from about  $\pm 4$  db to about  $\pm 1$  db, and this change makes it possible to increase the echo suppressor sensitivity about 2 db without increased

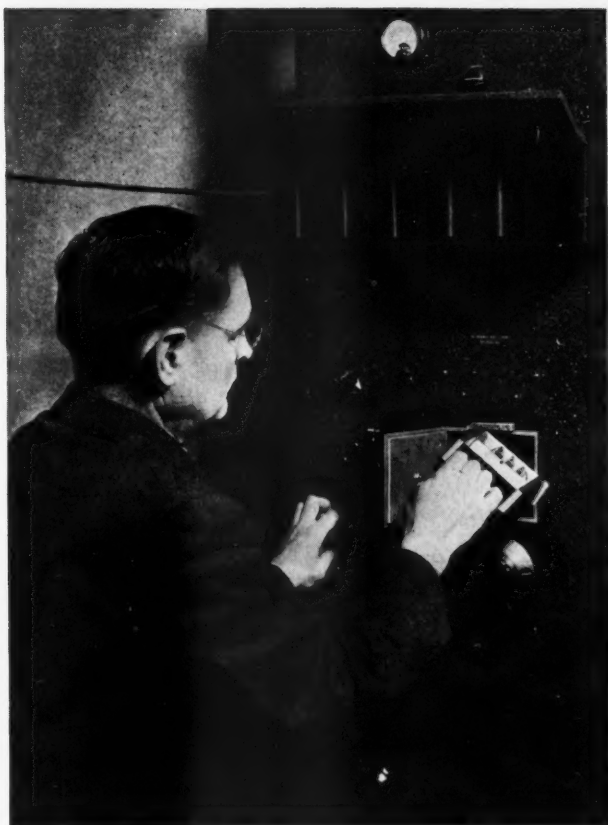
danger of noise operation. Taking advantage both of the increased echo suppressor sensitivity and the reduced overall circuit variations, the working net loss of the circuit may be reduced from about 11 db  $\pm 4$  db to about 7 db  $\pm 1$  db, where the circuit is not switched to another toll office at either end. The tonlar is believed to have similar advantages on "via connections," where the main line under tonlar control is extended to outlying offices at one or both ends.



*Visitors to the Bell Telephone Laboratories' exhibit at the convention of the American Institute of Physics were intrigued by the continuous rotation of a small disk, supported by glass so that no mechanical or electrical power could reach it. The facts that the black rim of the disk was embraced by a small piece of steel shaped like a magnet, and that a nearby box was quite warm, suggested to some of the physicists that the trick was based on the loss of permeability by iron when heated to a temperature called "the Curie point."*

*To create the exhibition model a thin strip of permalloy was welded into a ring and fastened around the periphery of a glass disk which was set in bearings so that it could rotate. Light from an automobile headlight bulb was filtered so that only its invisible heat waves were focussed on a small section of the permalloy ring and the heat sharply reduced the permeability. Close to this point the ring was subject to attraction by a permanent magnet and as the mechanical force was greater for the cold part, the resulting unbalance of forces caused the ring to rotate about twenty times a minute.*





## A Wide-Range Oscillator for the Higher Frequencies

By L. ARMITAGE  
*Telephone Apparatus Development*

THE recent increase in importance of impedance and transmission measurements at high frequencies has required the development of special measuring equipment. To provide a source of power at these frequencies, an oscillator has been developed which covers the frequency range from about 50 to 5000 kc.

A balanced push-pull circuit was chosen as is shown in simplified form in Figure 1. Such a circuit has the advantage of lending itself to a symmetry in the arrangement of its physi-

cal elements that is nearly as great as that indicated in the schematic. The wire connections can be made very short, and because of the very complete balancing, parasitic oscillations are greatly reduced. The circuit consists of a push-pull oscillator loosely coupled through small-capacity condensers to a push-pull amplifier, which in turn feeds the output transformer through a potentiometer across the high impedance. Pentode tubes, with indirectly heated cathodes, are used for both oscillator and amplifier.

Besides the electrical requirements of stability and precision of setting, simplicity in design and control was felt to be of considerable importance. The output frequency is set by two decade condenser units and a vernier air condenser, but one of six plug-in coils must be selected depending on the portion of the frequency range being used. These coils are inserted through a small door in the front of the oscillator as shown in the photograph at the head of this article. The complete oscillator is housed in a metal box which may be placed on a table or mounted on a relay rack. A small plate power supply unit has been provided in addition to make the oscillator completely a-c operated. This, together with a box for holding the spare plug-in coils, is shown mounted in the center directly above the oscillator in Figure 2.

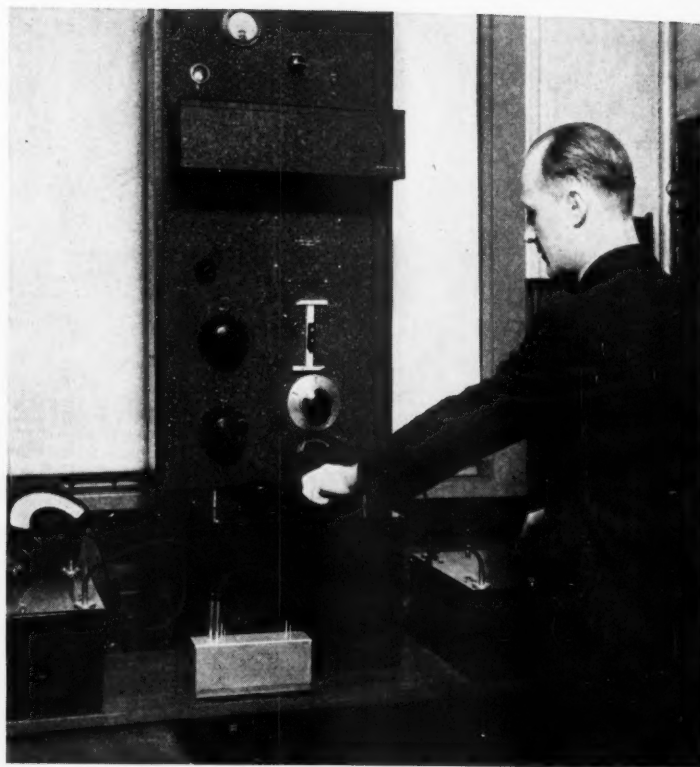


Fig. 2—Two dials for the decade condensers, at the left, the vernier air condenser dial, at the lower right, and the output potentiometer knob, above the condenser decades, are the only controls employed in the operation of the new oscillator

Between the oscillator and amplifier tubes on Figure 1 are shown the plug-in coil and the tuning condenser. This latter really consists of three units: two decades of mica condensers, and an air condenser operated by a

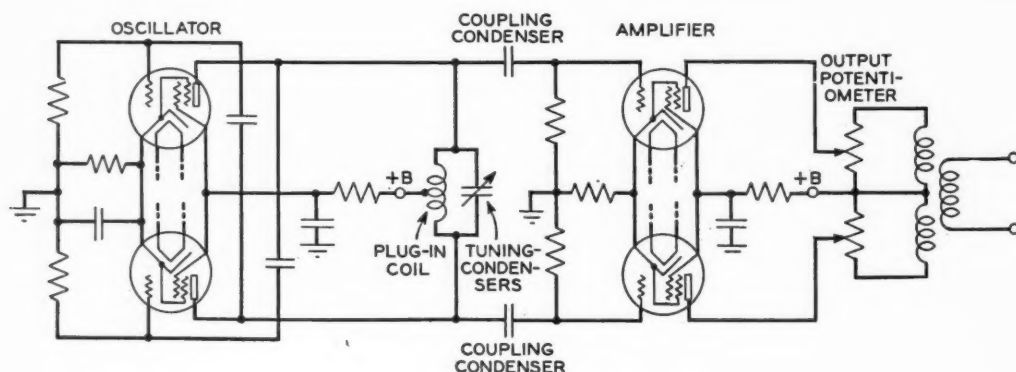


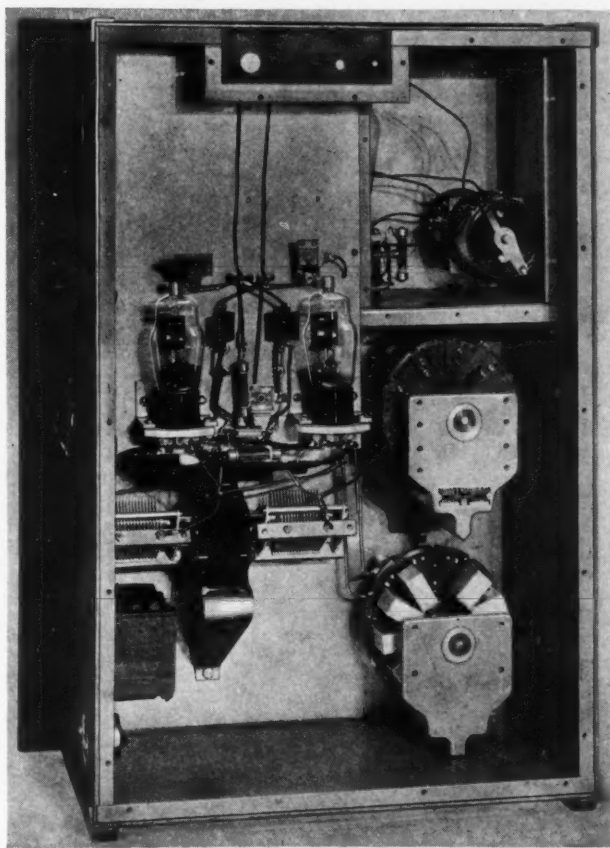
Fig. 1—Simplified schematic of the oscillator

vernier dial. The decades are arranged so that there is only one condenser of each decade in the circuit at any one time. This construction, which has already been described in the *RECORD*\* as applied to a resistance standard, has considerably less stray capacitance and inductance than the commutating type. The air condenser is turned by a commercial micrometer-type dial through a worm gear drive. The dial is marked with fifty divisions and makes ten turns for one rotation of the condenser, so that 500 divisions are passed over for one revolution of the condenser. Since the dial may be readily set to one-fifth of a division, extreme precision in the setting may be obtained with little trouble.

The plug-in coils are wound on Isolantite forms two inches in diameter and four inches long. Four of them have single-layer windings of bare tinned copper wire, while the other two—used for the lower frequencies—have layered windings of insulated wire. The windings are put on under tension so that as the temperature rises there will be a reduction in the tension in the wire rather than a change in its length or position on the form. This reduces the effects of changes in temperature on the constants of the coil, which might otherwise be objectionable. Since the coils are of the solenoid type, their inductance will be affected by the configuration of nearby metal parts. Special precautions were taken therefore in designing the door on the front of the oscillator cabinet, through which the plug-in coils are changed, so

that the inductance of the coils would not be changed by differences in contact between the door and cabinet as it was successively opened and closed.

A single output transformer is used over the full frequency range of 50 to 5000 kc. to couple the output amplifier to the load. Although tuned output transformers would give a uniformly greater output over this frequency range, tuning of the transformers would react upon the oscillator circuit and result in poorer frequency stability. Also in the interest of frequency stability, it was found advisable to control the output on the plate side of the output tubes rather than the grid side. In addition to this, the wave form of the oscillator was



*Fig. 3—Rear view of oscillator with cover removed, showing the arrangement of apparatus*

\**RECORD*, January, 1935, p. 136.

considerably improved by stabilizing the output impedance at a relatively low value by means of a resistance across the high side of the output coil. By making this resistance in the form of a potentiometer it is made to function also as an output control. This arrangement works well over the entire frequency range without greatly affecting the oscillator frequency when changing its output. An output of at least 100 milliwatts into 100 ohms may be obtained over the entire rated frequency range. The frequency change of the oscillator when the load impedance is changed from open to short circuit is only about 5 cycles in one megacycle. Although the normal frequency range of the oscillator with 6 plug-in coils is 50 to 5000 kc., the high frequency coil may be used as high as 10 megacycles with some sacrifice in output and stability.

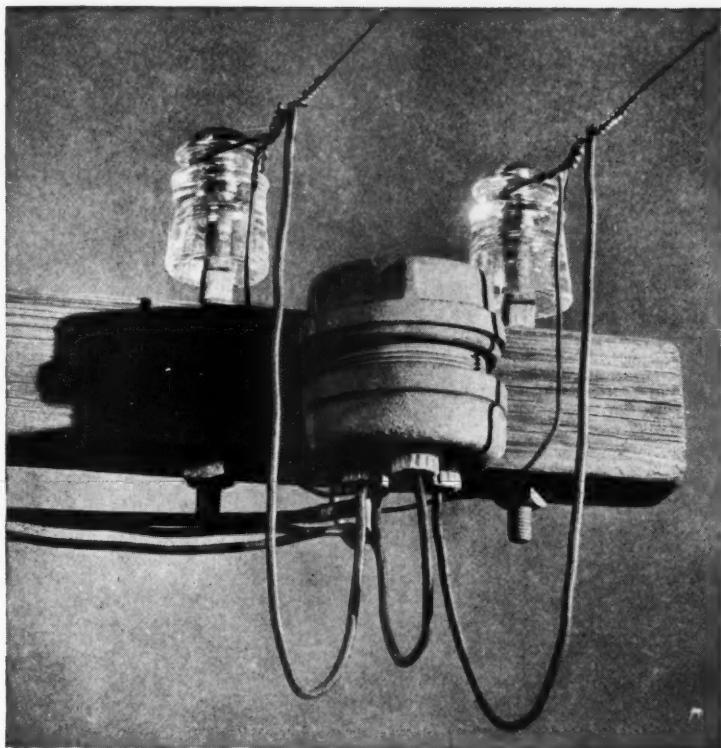
The arrangement of the apparatus in the cabinet is shown in Figure 3. At the left center are the two oscillator tubes while at the other side of the shielding partition behind them are the two output tubes. Directly beneath the oscillator tubes are the air condensers with the vernier gear drive between them. At the right are the two decade condenser units, and at the upper right are the output potentiometers, mounted tandem and controlled from a single dial on the front. At the extreme lower left-hand side of the illustration is shown the transformer used for supplying filament current.

The maximum temperature rise inside the oscillator is only about 11 degrees Fahrenheit. Temperature saturation is practically reached, however, in about an hour, and for most purposes the oscillator may be considered stable in half an hour. The maximum change in frequency of the oscillator during the warming up period is of the order of 100 cycles in one megacycle or about 0.01 per cent.

The frequency change of the oscillator for one volt change in the plate power supply is of the order of one cycle at one megacycle, and automatic regulation is incorporated in the plate power supply unit to maintain the plate potential constant to within one volt for variations in the line voltage of  $\pm 10$  per cent. Some change in frequency due to variations in line voltage is also caused by changes in the filament supply voltage, but the overall frequency change resulting from variations in line voltage of as much as  $\pm 10$  per cent is only of the order of ten cycles at one megacycle, or about 0.001 per cent. Radio-frequency energy radiated by the power supply unit and its associated supply line is negligible.

As a result of this development there is now available a wide-range oscillator for the higher frequencies, which is simple to operate and has high frequency stability. By the use of six plug-in coils the frequency range from 50 to 5000 kc. may be covered with high precision of setting.





## Protection Against Lightning Interference

By C. C. CASH  
*Protection Development*

**D**IRECT lightning strokes on communication lines rarely occur but disturbances may result from inductive effects caused by thunderstorms, sometimes many miles away, unless these disturbances are effectively guarded against. On open-wire lines which are well transposed and well balanced, the voltages developed directly in the telephone circuits during storms are relatively small but high voltages to ground are induced which appear in substantially the same magnitude on both wires of a pair. Protectors are provided at the ends of the line to relieve these high voltages by discharging them through suitable ground connections.

There is always a certain amount of dissymmetry between the two protectors on a pair of wires, either in the initial breakdown or discharge characteristics or in both. In view of these dissymmetries, when the lightning currents discharge through the protectors, a pulse appears in the circuit whose magnitude depends upon the size of the voltage induced by the lightning and the dissymmetry between the two protectors. These surges produce "hits" on carrier telegraph instruments and clicks in telephone circuits. Much effort has been expended to develop protector blocks to operate in pairs without unsymmetrical characteristics, but it has not

been found possible to accomplish this without impairing their ability to protect the plant.

To minimize these surges, it is necessary either to prevent the protector blocks from breaking down or to apply circuits which force them to operate in a symmetrical manner.

One such method involves the use of drainage coils to prevent protector breakdown. In this arrangement, Figure 1, there is a coil bridged across

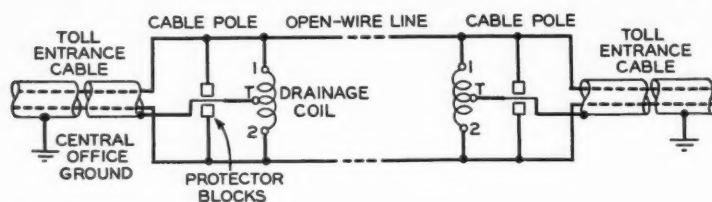


Fig. 1—Drainage coils are bridged across each end of an open-wire line to prevent protectors from breaking down

each end of the open-wire line at the cable pole with the center tap connected to the cable sheath. This sheath must be continuous to the underground cable or to the central office or repeater station and connected there to the protection ground. In most cases drainage coils at the cable poles are sufficient to conduct the discharges to ground and to prevent breakdown of the protectors at the office. In some cases, however, particularly where the entrance cables are rather long, so that the resistance of the cable sheath from the central office to the cable pole becomes appreciable, or if electrical reflections may occur, drainage coils are necessary in the office as well as at the cable pole. On lines which include intermediate cables such as may be used at a river crossing, it is necessary to install drainage coils at both ends of the cable, where the protector blocks are located. Experience has indicated that it is necessary to drain only the cir-

cuits upon which the interference is to be minimized and not the whole line.

Field tests made during the summers of 1933 and 1934 indicate that such coils drain the lightning surges off to ground and prevent nearly all protector operation. In the case of carrier transposed circuits the interference to carrier telegraph due to lightning and static is reduced to only a few per cent of that on circuits without drainage. The data were obtained

on an idle carrier telegraph channel with a recorder arranged to indicate the number of times the tongue of the receiving relay was moved off contact. Teletypewriter tests were also made over the test circuits.

The drainage coil, which was designed by the Apparatus Development Department, is shown in the headpiece. It consists of a single winding (1-T-2), T being the center tap, and is potted in a weatherproof case suitable for outdoor mounting. A U-bolt encircles the case for securing it to a telephone crossarm.

The coil has a low impedance to ground for current induced simultaneously in the same direction in both wires of the circuit, which is a necessary condition for a good drainage coil, and at the same time a high bridging impedance for voice and carrier currents. The modulation, noise, crosstalk and attenuation effects in the voice and carrier ranges are practically negligible.

The action of the coil in reducing lightning interference in a carrier telegraph circuit is shown by the accompanying oscillograph record of Figure 2 where records of currents observed in an undrained and a drained circuit

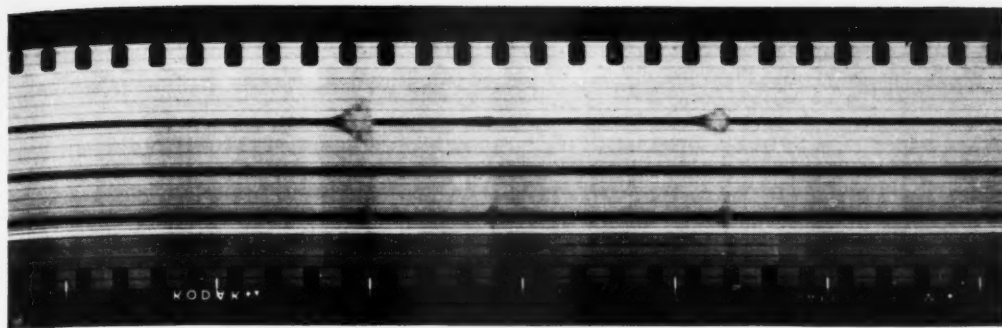


Fig. 2—Oscillograms show that induced currents of measurable value are recorded on an undrained circuit (top and bottom lines) when they are not obtained on a drained circuit (middle line)

during a lightning storm are given. Induced currents of substantial value were obtained in the undrained circuit while none were recorded in the drained circuit. Other data indicate that disturbances which are large enough to affect both the drained and undrained circuits are very few compared with the total number of disturbances and that when such disturbances do appear they are much smaller in magnitude and shorter in duration in the drained than in the undrained circuit.

While the direct use of drainage coils provides a large measure of relief, it has definite disadvantages in that the low impedance to ground which is so necessary for satisfactory drainage of lightning currents prevents the proper operation of grounded tele-

graph system and the usual direct-current testing of the wires.

These disadvantages may be obviated with some reduction in effectiveness by an arrangement which consists of protector gaps in series with the drainage coil. This keeps the drainage coil off the circuit until a surge has broken down the protector blocks. In this arrangement, low voltage breakdown protector blocks are connected between the coil winding and the line wires with the center tap of the coil grounded, Figure 3. The voltage across the circuit is minimized by the balancing action of the coil, which tends to counter-balance dissymmetry in the breakdown and discharge characteristics of the protectors. When the protector gap associated with one-half of the coil dis-

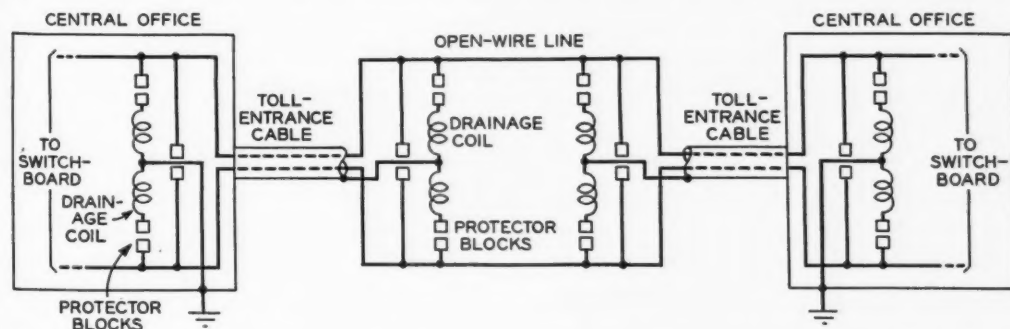


Fig. 3—Low voltage protector blocks are sometimes connected in series with drainage coils to prevent grounding the line except when a discharge takes place

charges more rapidly than that associated with the other half, a voltage is induced in this second half which strengthens the weaker discharge and hastens the breakdown of the protector on the weaker side. The above arrangement of protector blocks with retardation coil should be placed at every entrance cable pole, at both sides of any intermediate cables and in offices where the lines terminate.

The benefits of this protector drainage arrangement are large, since as noted it saves the grounded telegraph circuits, and the direct-current testing methods. Furthermore, on picture-

transmission circuits it permits using the wire for direct-current control which would not be possible without the series protector blocks to prevent short-circuiting the control current.

Protector drainage is now being used quite extensively on open wire pairs employed for the transmission of voice-frequency carrier telegraph superposed on carrier telephone for high-frequency telegraph and for picture transmission. Further tests are being made to determine more completely the effectiveness of protector drainage and direct drainage and the fields of application for each method.

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*"A few years from now the pendulum clock itself may be obsolete. At the Bell Telephone Laboratories in New York City, a young physicist, Dr. W. A. Marrison, has invented a totally new form of clock. For the first time since 1673, he has dispensed with the pendulum itself in a highly accurate timepiece. Primarily Dr. Marrison was interested in a standard of frequency rather than of time, but, as a by-product his work has produced a clock that, without a pendulum, keeps time of an accuracy comparable to that kept by the most accurate clock of a few years ago. So far, the Shortt clock has some advantage on the Marrison device in point of precision. However, great superiority of Dr. Marrison's invention comes from the fact that, not using a pendulum, it does not require as stable a support as the older clocks. The latter must be kept on firm piers of brick or concrete, preferably in an underground chamber, away from vibration. The Marrison clock can be used in a tall office building, on board ship, or even in an airplane if necessary, so that it will do the work of a chronometer, but with far greater precision. . . ."*

*From "Stars and Telescopes," by James Stokley,  
Harper and Brothers.*





## Laminated Phenolic Insulating Materials

By J. J. MARTIN

*Insulation Materials Engineering*

**L**AMINATED phenolic insulating materials are used extensively in telephone apparatus. They are made by impregnating sheets of paper, fabric or asbestos with condensation products of the phenol formaldehyde type and bonding a number of such sheets together by heat and pressure. A very dense, strong material of uniform structure is thus obtained which embodies such characteristics as good electrical properties, hardness, toughness, heat resistance, low water absorption, high dielectric strength and chemical resistance. These qualities, and other

primary properties, such as resilience, easy fabrication and lightness make it adaptable to many different uses.

Laminated products are made only in the form of sheets, rods, tubes, and a few other shapes of simple contour because they cannot be molded in intricate form. The range of uses to which they have been found suited, however, is so large that a number of grades of phenolic laminated materials are now made by the Western Electric Company under the designations of phenol fibre and phenol fabric. The resin content of the product is the factor which primarily determines its



*Fig. 1—J. J. Martin demonstrating with an experimental stack-up how laminated phenolic materials are made. Pressures of about one ton per square inch and a temperature of about 350 degrees Fahrenheit are used*

insulating properties. This varies in the different grades from thirty to seventy per cent. The phenol fibres are distinguished from the phenol fabrics in that the former are made with paper and the latter with cloth.

Laminated sheet material is built up of plies, or laminae, of paper, fabric or asbestos, which have been passed through a bath consisting of phenol resinoid in solution and then pre-cured in a long, heated dryer. The requisite number of plies for the desired thickness are weighed out and placed between metal plates. If a polished surface is desired, metal plates that have been highly burnished are required, but where the finish is immaterial an unpolished plate is used.

polymerization of the resin. In general, molded tubes are more homogeneous than rolled tubes and consequently have greater resistance to moisture and higher electrical insulating properties. Rolled tubes, on the other hand, show better mechanical properties.

In the manufacture of rods, the impregnated paper or fabric is wound on a mandrel of very small diameter, which is withdrawn after the winding is completed. The tube is then subjected to heat and pressure in the same type of mold as is used for the molded tube. This pressure closes the hole from which the mandrel was taken and makes a solid rod.

Since laminated products which have a high resin content, in general,

Laminated tubes are made by two methods. The pre-cured material may be rolled on an unheated steel mandrel of the desired inside diameter and then placed between the halves of a semi-circular steel mold for final processing under heat and pressure, or the mandrel itself may be heated and paper or fabric compressed by a second heated roll. In this case the processing takes place as the mandrel is slowly revolved. The first method gives what is known as a molded tube and the second forms a so-called rolled tube. In some cases, the tube is placed in an oven immediately after the wrapping operation to complete the

have good insulating properties, they are extensively used for electrical apparatus where exposure to severe atmospheric conditions is experienced. Those made with less resin find application primarily where high electrical resistance is not demanded and for various mechanical purposes.

Laminated phenolic materials were first used by the Bell System in 1913 as a substitute for red fibre in the front spools of relays to prevent corrosion of contact springs and windings. Their use was later extended to keys, jacks, lamp sockets and other applications in manual apparatus. With the development of machine switching apparatus, a high electrical grade of material having a minimum amount of shrinkage and cold-flow for the pileup insulators of closely adjusted relays was required and also a material which offered resistance to arcing for the sequence switch cam insulators. These results were attained by using a phenol fibre having a high resin content to prevent the absorption of moisture with consequent changes of dimensions in the one case and by the use of a special plasticized phenol fibre to prevent arcing in the other.

Another phenol fibre was recently developed in connection with spoolheads for relays. This material has good electrical properties under high humidities and can also be used for punched parts. It changes less in linear dimension, with changes in atmospheric humidity, than any other grade of phenol

fibre which makes it particularly well adapted for use in the construction of relays with a short armature travel. A mahogany-type surface finish is provided to designate the direction of grain which in turn is also the dimension of least change.

Phenol fabric as distinguished from phenol fibre is made in grades which differ principally in the closeness of weave of the cotton fabric. The finer weaves are known commercially as "linen" while the coarser weaves are designated as duck or canvas. The finer weave material, because of the closely woven and uniform structure of the fabric layers, is especially adapted to applications where an unusually dense, tough, close-grained product is desired. The linen stock is particularly suitable for punched parts since its fine texture insures clean-cut, smooth edges. It is also especially adapted to the cutting of gears of small face dimensions. The duck and canvas base materials are used where mechanical requirements are important.



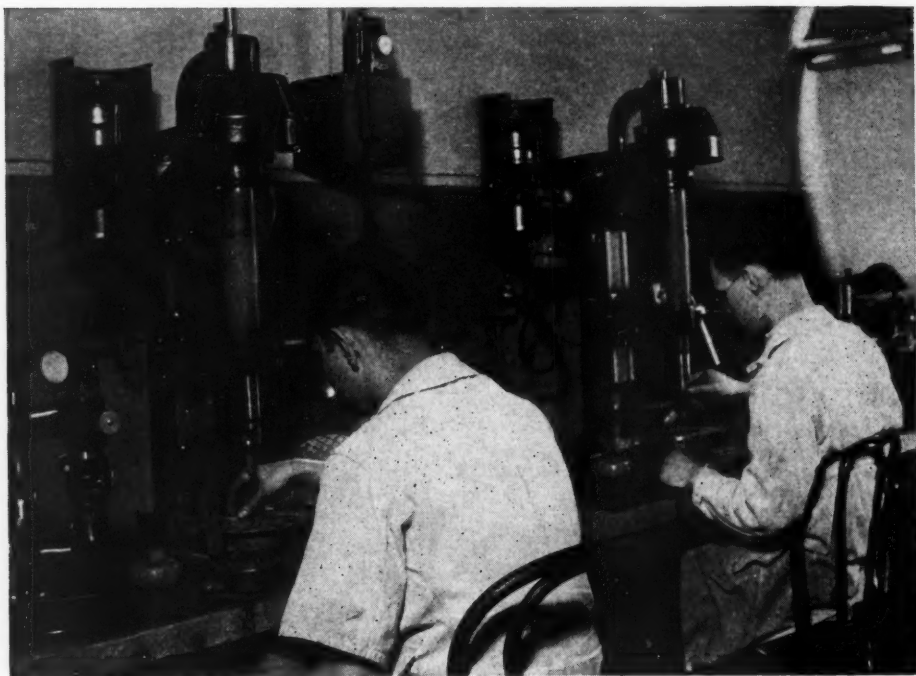
*Fig. 2—The stack-up of pre-cured paper is placed between polished metal plates to give a smooth-finished product*

The electrical grade of phenol fabric is made from a fine weave fabric. It must meet the standard of insulation resistance required for the electrical grades of phenol fibre, although the fibre, in general, is a better insulating material. Because of its toughness and resistance to cracking this grade of phenol fabric is used for terminal plates in constructions where hollow rivets or eyelets are used and where transmission losses must be kept low.

The mechanical grade finds application where physical properties, particularly toughness, are of prime importance, but where electrical properties are secondary. It is made with a canvas base and is used extensively in the construction of terminal plates

for power transformers; also as a material for tool handles. Another grade of phenol fabric is also available of the same type as the electrical grade except that the electrical requirement is waived. It is used in mechanical applications where the fine weave is necessary to insure good appearance after machining, such as for small gears and in tool construction.

Phenol fibres and phenol fabrics have become an indispensable insulating material in the construction of telephone apparatus. Their use in this field has grown rapidly during the last few years and the many applications in which these laminated insulating materials are found particularly suitable are continually increasing.



*Grinding and polishing quartz-crystal plates in the crystal laboratory*



## "The Renaissance of Physics"

"EVER since the turn of the century physics has been enjoying a veritable renaissance, fairly to be likened with that splendid flowering of the arts and humane letters four hundred years ago to which the name of Renaissance was first applied." So writes Dr. K. K. Darrow in a new book entitled "The Renaissance of Physics," and recently published by Macmillan. In emphasizing the recency of physics, he writes further: "Many of its heroes are still living and still young, many more are vividly remembered by the living; and of the rest, all but a few have lived within the last two centuries."

After discussing the small particles or corpuscles composing material bodies, and the various wave phenomena grouped under the generic name of light, which until the present century might have been considered the non-material element of physics, he faces the fact that corpuscles have wave aspects, and waves have corpuscle aspects, and states the rules of correlation. He points out, however, that the problem of how "to make sense of the Rules of Correlation . . . has proved to be a very tough one. So tough it is, that physicists have been driven to all manner of singular mental devices. It is the origin of most, if not of all, of the amazing and baffling assertions which have

crept even into popular literature—sources of grief to those who expect a classic sobriety of statement from the scientist and of malicious joy to those who like to see unsettlement and incoherence invading an authoritative science." He then regretfully adds

that "perhaps there will have to be an esoteric doctrine for those who wish to master the processes of physics, and an exoteric doctrine for those who merely wish to use it or to read about it."

"The fixity of the chemical elements," Dr. Darrow points out in his concluding paragraph, "has vanished, for we are able to convert their substance from the form of one into the form of an-

other. The fixity of matter itself has vanished, for we are able to convert its substance from the form of electrical particles into the form of light. No element, nor matter itself, nor light itself, is permanent. All that is perpetual is something of which they all are made, incarnating itself in all of them by turn, and passing unimpaired from form to form. . . . The belief that all things are made of a single substance is old as thought itself; but ours is the generation which, first of all in history, is able to receive the unity of Nature not as a baseless dogma or a hopeless aspiration, but a principle of science based on proof as sharp and clear as anything which is known."



Karl K. Darrow



## Contributors to This Issue

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L. G. ABRAHAM received the degrees of B.S. and M.S. in electrical engineering from the University of Illinois in 1922 and 1923, respectively. In July of the latter year he joined the Department of Development and Research of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company as a member of the Transmission Development Department and was transferred to the Laboratories in 1934. His work has been chiefly in connection with toll circuits, and he has devoted most of his time to securing optimum overall performance of message circuits.

HOMER DUDLEY has been a member of the Research Department since his graduation from Penn State where he received the degree of B.S. in Electrical Engineering in 1921. His first work related to the transmission features of local telephone systems. Then for several years he supervised work on voice-operated circuits for transatlantic radio, long lines and submarine telephone cables.

In 1930 his activities were diverted to research and development problems on coaxial-conductor systems. For the past

two years he has been engaged in the design and construction of the speech analyzing and synthesizing circuits which are described in this issue of the RECORD. He received the degree of M.A. in Physics from Columbia in 1924.

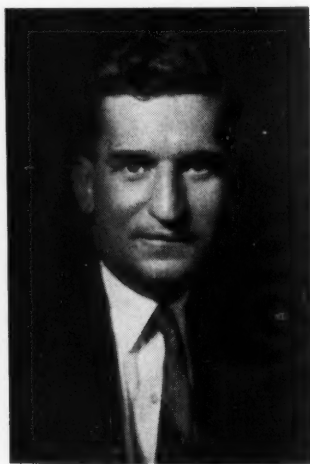
FOR THE PAST twenty years F. F. Lucas has been engaged at the Laboratories in metallographic investigations which have not only extended our knowledge of the microstructure of materials used in telephone construction but have also led to the development of a powerful microscope which has greatly increased the range of microscopic vision.

Dr. Lucas received an honorary Sc.D. degree from Lehigh University in 1931. He has also been awarded four medals for outstanding contributions to the field of photomicrography. In 1933 he was awarded a diploma for exceptional photographic art by A Century of Progress, Chicago.

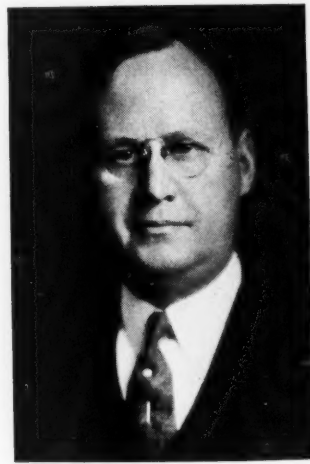
In 1929 he was invited by the Japanese to participate in the World Engineering Congress held in Tokio and was made a chairman of the Metals Section. While in



*L. G. Abraham*



*Homer Dudley*



*F. F. Lucas*



*H. G. Arlt*



*L. J. Stacy*



*L. Armitage*

Japan he was invited to lecture at the Imperial Universities of Tokio, Kyoto and Sendai. In 1927 and again in 1931 he was a delegate of the State Department to International Congresses held in Amsterdam and in Zurich where he presented reports of his work. Dr. Lucas has been invited to present a report on metallography before the International Congress to be held in London during April, 1937.

H. G. ARLT received the degree of M.E. in 1923 from Stevens Institute of Technology. He joined the Laboratories that year and was assigned to preparing apparatus specifications. Two years later he transferred to the physical laboratory where he has specialized in the engineering of finishes. He is now in charge of the work on finishes and of that on the chemical requirements of various organic materials.

L. J. STACY received the A.B. degree from St. Lawrence University in 1909. After six years of school teaching, he entered the University of Chicago for two years of graduate study in physics and mathematics. In the radio division of the Signal Corps in 1918 he rose to a second lieutenantcy, then returned to Chicago to receive the Ph.D. degree in 1919, and later that year entered the Systems Development Department of these Laboratories. He has been concerned with ringing and tone studies and

other special technical problems in the local central office laboratory, and now supervises a group devoted to this work.

JOINING THE Western Electric Company in 1913 as Laboratory Assistant, L. Armitage spent five years in various development undertakings among which was that of iron dust cores. During this period he received the degree of B.S. from Cooper Union. After a year's absence in military service he returned to West Street and spent two years on the mechanical design of carrier equipment. For the next six years he was in business for himself, manufacturing radio sets. He returned to the Laboratories in 1927. Since then he has been employed in the development of impedance bridges, frequency equipment, and at present is engaged in designing testing apparatus.

J. J. MARTIN joined the Apparatus Development Department of the Western Electric Company after graduating from Clarkson College of Technology in 1923 with the degree of B.S. in Mechanical Engineering. After six years in Apparatus Analysis he was transferred to the Materials Department and recently was placed in charge of a group concerned with insulating materials problems.

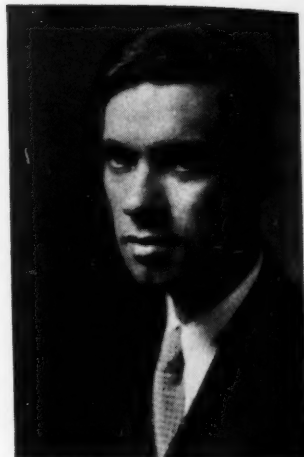
C. C. CASH received the degree of B.S. in E.E. at Rose Polytechnic Institute in 1928 and M.S. at M.I.T. in 1930. Immediately afterwards he joined the De-



*J. J. Martin*



*C. C. Cash*



*S. B. Ingram*

velopment and Research Department of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company where he engaged in studies relating to the protection of communication circuits against atmospheric and power-line disturbances. In 1934 he was transferred to the Laboratories. Here his work has been largely concerned with the development of drainage methods for minimizing lightning interference to open-wire carrier telegraph circuits.

S. B. INGRAM received a B.A. degree from the University of British Columbia

in 1925, and a Ph.D. in physics from the California Institute of Technology three years later. During the next two years, as National Research Fellow in Physics, he carried on research studies in experimental and theoretical spectroscopy at the University of Michigan. In 1930 he joined the Technical Staff of Bell Telephone Laboratories where he has since been engaged in the development of mercury-vapor rectifiers, three element gas-filled tubes, and other gas discharge devices.